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SCHOOL AND SOCIETY

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SCHOOL AND SOCIETY

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SOME PROBLEMS IN GEOGRAPHIC EDUCATION WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO SECONDARY SCHOOLS[1]

IT may seem at first superfluous to devote this address to the discussion of problems in geographic education when more than one half the members of this association are engaged in teaching geography, or some phases of the subject, in our higher institutions. Having, however, worked many years in the shadow of both geography and education—as it were, in the umbra of the one and the penumbra of the other subject—my energy has been devoted increasingly to the consideration of those problems which involve the effective coordination of educational theory, practise and ideals and the ideals of the professional geographer and professional teacher of geography. I have realized more and more fully as the years have passed that we shall never have effective geography teaching until geographers and educators come to understand each other better, are more sympathetic each toward the other's viewpoint, until they realize that their ideals have many factors in common, and that effectiveness can be secured only by team work. The time has passed when in education, sports, or even in life, the star player can afford to sacrifice the success of the "team" to increase his vanity or promote his dignity.

Education is not to-day what it was twenty-five years ago. No longer are the best methods of teaching a given subject decided by show of hands in a classroom or applause at a teachers' institute. A successful worker in education must follow those fundamental principles of his young science that have been measured quantitatively or tested and proved by other experimental methods. The apprentice system, by which so many of us have come to our life work, can not now be considered the best preparation for success in teaching any subject.

I remember but two pedagogical suggestions that came to me in my early years of teaching, both unconsciously given. They were both wise and helpful; both were founded on experience and a knowledge of human psychology, but both were in reference to the handling of people and not to the handling of the subject so as to present it most effectively to freshmen—the task before me then.

I can see as though it were yesterday my master, Professor Shaler—to give him the deserved title with which he always so reverentially spoke of his master, Louis Agassiz—as he sat behind his long table and listened to my request for advice as to how to handle my first problem in teaching—a student older than I who had protested about his mark. Taking his long pipe from his mouth in the characteristic manner that every old student of his remembers so clearly, Professor Shaler remarked, "I leave it entirely in your hands. Keep your temper." I recognize now that no advice could have been wiser or more helpful to meet the situation. It has helped me many times since, in dealing with

[1] Presidential address delivered before the Association of American Geographers, Washington meeting, December, 1915.

youth as well as with adults. The second suggestion came from the master of geography in whose mind this association was conceived and to whom we owe so much of its strength. During a conversation on a field trip over Hoosac Mountain, Professor Davis remarked, "Don't laugh *at* children, laugh *with* them"—a rule I have found of great assistance in dealing with impressionable youth.

I have given these personal remembrances, not in the spirit of reminiscence which is a sign of advancing years; not to give credit to the two honored teachers whose influence has been most significant in my life—that would be impossible—but to indicate the character of the incidental apprentice training in teaching of the last century that I may contrast with it certain aspects of what might be called the systematic shop management training in education of this century.

It is no longer believed that "teachers are born, not made." They must be born and made, trained in their subject, in methods of imparting it, and in the practise of educational principles, if they are to be successful from the start. Others may survive and succeed. By trial and error, by experiment and adaptation, using classes as unresisting but by no means willing laboratory material, ignorant of the relative values of possible methods of teaching a given subject, perhaps even ignorant that there is any other subject except their hobby, some may become teachers of worth, but many fall by the wayside, fortunately for the cause. To-day few of us believe that we can be *teachers* of geography if we think only of presenting our favorite subject in a logical sequence and leave out of account the men and women, or youths and maids, on whose effective training to meet their life problems our success as teachers depends. Consciously or unconsciously we make use of some of the established theorems of educational psychology and of the proved principles of education.

The progress of the cooperating science of education within the last two decades has been so rapid, and it has so grown in strength and usefulness that to-day few question its right to a place in the curriculum of the higher institutions of learning. That is more than can be said for geography, either for the secondary school, the normal school, or the college. There are some who even question the value of geography in elementary schools. Education as a subject is now generally recognized as necessary in the efficient training of teachers of any grade.

As is characteristic of the early stages of development of any movement, some have gone to extremes in their stressing of education. So much attention has sometimes been given to the theory and principles of education, that pupil teachers in training have not had sufficient time for proper preparation in the subject-matter, which should be the basis of any training for teaching. Just as youthful Doctors of Philosophy in some narrow specialty have been imposing their lecture notes from the university and university methods of instruction, on the secondary schools, thereby augmenting the university influence that so long hampered secondary education, so teachers educationally overtrained, but with no adequate knowledge of geography, history, mathematics or English, have weakened rather than strengthened elementary education.

To be educationally top heavy is worse than to be geographically or historically top heavy: both are unfortunate in all phases of education, but especially in elementary, secondary and normal-school work. As Geikie long ago expressed it,

In the teaching of geography, as in instruction of every kind, the fundamental condition for success is that the teacher has so thoroughly mastered the subject himself and takes so much interest in it, that he can speak to his pupils about it, not in the set phrases of a class book, but out of the fulness of his own knowledge, being quick to draw his most effective illustrations from the daily experiences of those to whom he addresses himself.

In other words, a knowledge of children's interests and of the best methods of making connections between the known and the unknown, the basis of modern educational practise, are both necessary. To-day leading educators no longer hold the belief that students can, through education, be taught to teach what they do not know, nor that the person who has the most intimate knowledge of his subject is thereby of necessity a real teacher. Education has passed through the period of exploitation, and the period of being organized about the momentary ideals of magnetic and appealing leaders—so characteristic in the development of almost any subject, as it is of governmental policy—and is now a growing science, with certain fundamental principles that are no more questioned than is the fact of evolution.

The recent progress in education is indicated by the significant fact that twenty years ago our educational institutions were giving courses in educational theory, while to-day we find courses entitled the principles of education. Similarly child study has given way to educational psychology, whose far-reaching scientific conclusions have given us a basis for reorganizing our antiquated and unscientific class-room methods. Progress in the education of an individual or group, at least in the lower schools, is no longer estimated, it is *measured*. Standard tests are widely used to measure advancement in arithmetic, in reading, in spelling, in writing, in composition and in drawing.[2] Schools can now be standardized as to the quantity and quality of their work, and individual methods of teaching can be compared in effectiveness, without impairing the spirit of the school work or weakening the significance of the personal touch that makes the real teacher. Methods of accurately measuring the results in history, geography, literature and science—the so-called content subjects—are now being studied and doubtless will soon be available. Initial steps have already been taken to determine the minimum essentials of geography in the elementary schools,[3] which may form a basis on which may be constituted a fuller and more vital course in geography. So far attention has been given only to listing the isolated facts of geography any person should know and be able to use. Inasmuch as one may be a gazetteer of information and not be a geographer, or even educated in geography, it is sincerely to be hoped that the studies will be carried on until we have a minimum set of vital geographical relationships to supplement the jackstraw groups of facts, for the flesh and not the

[2] B. R. Buckingham, "Spelling Ability: Its Measurement and Distribution," Teachers College Contribution to Education, No. 59. E. L. Thorndike, "Scale for Measuring Handwriting," *Teachers College Record*, March, 1910; "The Measurement of Ability in Reading," *Teachers College Record*, September, 1914; "The Measurement of Achievement in Drawing," *Teachers College Record*, November, 1913. M. B. Hillegas, "Scale for Measurement of English Composition by Young People," *Teachers College Record*, September, 1912. Cliff Winfield Stone, "Arithmetical Abilities and Some Factors Determining Them," Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 19. H. B. Howell, "A Fundamental Study in the Pedagogy of Arithmetic," Macmillan Co., 1914.

[3] W. C. Bagley, "The Determination of Minimum Essentials in Elementary Geography and History," Chapter IX. Fourteenth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, University of Chicago Press, Chicago, 1915.

bones of our science is what gives it usefulness, form, beauty, strength and individuality. Any willingness on the part of educators or geographers to confine their attention to items of location, or of industrial products can only result in strengthening the impression, unfortunately so general, that the content of geography is purely informational in character. Few geographers could subscribe to the following statement of the content of elementary-school geography, copied from a recent prominent book on teaching, and to the implication as to the content of more advanced geography:

> A student knows his geography well when he knows the location of all the important places and products and can tell why these are where they are; and when he knows all the important geographical facts, as every person should by the time he finishes the geography course.

Such inadequate summaries, indicating a narrow perspective and a lack of knowledge of the real character of geography, hurt the cause of education, of geography and of education through geography. The content, scope and possibilities of geography are primarily a question for geographers; the adaptability of certain phases of geography to pupils of a given age may be measured scientifically by trained educators; the best methods of teaching may be similarly tested, and we must accept and use the conclusions. This does not mean that we can subscribe to or must support every opinion published by a worker in education. We can accept his conclusions only when we can approve his methods of work as scientific and accurate.

Educational psychology in the hands of a few scientific workers has given us not only new standards but a new understanding of the actual mental processes in adolescence, as well as in the earlier and later periods of learning. A study of the actual processes of learning by the experimental psychologists has proved that many of the older methods of teaching in elementary and secondary schools were inefficient because based on erroneous assumptions rather than on an understanding of the laws of habit formation. No longer is a teacher's ability judged by his power to keep pupils inactive physically, which sometimes means they are inactive mentally. The requirement is that he shall promote mental activity perhaps in part through physical activity, if thereby a pupil can best give expression to his ideas, or indicate the directions of approach to which he responds most naturally.

Our increasing knowledge of the actual processes of learning has required a reconsideration of some of the doctrines of education prominent only a few years ago. The report of the subcommittee on geography of the Committee of Ten, in 1893,[4] said:

> While various activities of the mind are called into exercise in geographical work, the committee would advise that the systematic development of three classes of these should largely control the arrangement of the work, viz.: (1) the powers of observation; (2) the powers of scientific imagination, and (3) the powers of reasoning. The cultivation of the powers of observation is necessary to furnish clear, accurate and realistic fundamental ideas and modes of thought.

This is an expression of faith in the doctrine of formal discipline, and differs but little from the appeals that have been put forth as to the moral and intellectual usefulness of every old subject, whose value as a fundamental in education has been questioned, and of every new subject that enthusiasts would bring to the forefront in school curricula. The more difficult and remote a subject the better it was sup-

[4] Report of the Committee on Secondary School Studies, p. 214, U. S. Bureau of Education, Document 205, Washington, D. C., 1893.

posed to be for one's soul, because it gave "good mental discipline" and enabled one to prepare himself for other equally disagreeable tasks.

Aside from the psychological fallacy involved, that ability to do one kind of work would spread or be available for all other kinds of mental activity which we call by the same general name, the devotees of the doctrine ignored the fact that the maximum of activity or hard mental work could be secured only under the stimulus of genuine interest.[5]

Or, to put it in the words of Thorndike,[6]

It used to be thought, erroneously, that man's intellectual and moral responses were due in the main to a few formal abilities, such as attention, memory, imagination, reasoning, conscience, the will and the like, which worked in large measure irrespective of what particular stuff was to be attended to, remembered, reasoned about or chosen. . . . Intellect was not thought of as a multitude of special bonds between particular situations and particular responses, but as a few faculties and powers which should conduct certain operations equally well with almost any situation whatever. . . . As a result of the experiments that have been made since 1900, such expectations of universal transfer of ability in large amounts are no longer entertained by competent thinkers. It is agreed that there is no mysterious necessity in the nature of man which makes an improvement in grammatical reasoning spread to produce great improvement in all rational thought, or makes improved attentiveness to numbers in computation produce power to attend to the cloth in a loom or the marks on a butterfly. It is agreed that a gain in one ability improves others only in so far as it is proved to do so—that the question of the disciplinary value of any training is a question of fact to be measured, not an article of educational faith to be assumed. It is agreed that roughly we can hope for such wider improvement only in so far as the other abilities in question are in part identical with the ability specially trained. Investigations to ascertain just what these identities are, and just how far the improvement of certain abilities influences others, are among the most important now being made by scientific students of education.

Time will not permit any presentation of the experiments performed and tests made by the many workers who have contributed to the evolution of experimental psychology from a philosophy into a science. Suffice it to say that established principles of education, of which the new attitude of educational leaders toward the question of mental discipline is an instance, have brought about new and in general more efficient methods of teaching in our better elementary, secondary and normal schools. New methods involve not only a new attitude on the part of well-trained teachers, but new methods of class-room procedure, producing more initiative and responsiveness on the part of the pupils, of whatever age. The text-book is becoming a tool in education, and is no longer universally viewed as the final authoritative epitome of wisdom on a given subject. Of course, as in any new movement, steps must often be retraced and a new start made. Enthusiasts who have caught the spirit of the new movement but who are still using its principles with unconscious quotation marks, may lead others astray and thus hinder the progress they would promote.

On the whole, however, progress is being made. The scientific leaders, the trained teachers of teachers, and the teachers trained from the new viewpoint, form a cooperating force for better teaching that is producing marked results. An examination of the course of study in any leading school system will indicate how modern education has given a new lease of life to the common school subjects and made them contributions to the real education of the future men and women. However much we may

[5] George Drayton Strayer, "A Brief Course in the Teaching Process," p. 235. New York, The Macmillan Company, 1911.

[6] Edward Lee Thorndike, "Education," p. 114. New York, The Macmillan Company, 1912.

look askance at what seem to be the radical views of youth, and wish teaching were still what it was in the time of the desolate, unpainted "Little Red School House," we can not afford to shroud ourselves in the cloak of conservatism, and continue to look backward into the vistas of experience, lightened only by the fading glow of youthful memories out of perspective.

We must look forward, and if we believe geography can be aroused from the state of arrested development in which it has so long lain dormant, we must join forces with all who can contribute scientific truth or accurately tested experience to the solving of the problems of such deep interest to all, and work for success as never before. Geography will come to its own when it is *proved* to be worth while in education. To make geography worth while we must not only scrutinize our methods of teaching from the educational standpoint, reevaluate its parts, and perhaps the subject as a whole, but also pay attention to the educational movements that educational leaders, professional and political, are actively and effectively promoting.

Three movements of great significance, all vitally affecting the status of geography in elementary and secondary schools, have within the last few years come to the front in educational discussion and educational administration. They are the junior high school, the adoption of general science courses in the earlier high-school years, and the project or the problem method of teaching, not only science, but other subjects.

Perhaps the most far reaching and significant movement of recent years has been the development of the junior high school which may be "defined as a special organization of grades 7 and 8, or 7, 8 and 9 to provide for greater differentiation of studies, better care of individual pupils, an easier transition to high school, longer school life, etc."[7]

By this system of organization some subjects, like mathematics beyond arithmetic, foreign languages and commercial and industrial studies can be begun earlier in school life, the abrupt change in methods of school work customary where the high school follows after the eighth grade is avoided and children are kept interested in the work because content and methods change as their powers increase and ambitions develop with the oncoming of adolescence. Already reports of the success of junior high schools from many cities show statistically a great increase in the number of pupils that remain in school beyond the sixth or seventh grade. This division between the grade school and the high school, which has so long remained untouched, is disappearing like a mist before the breeze or sun.

How does this affect geography teaching in schools? Generally in one of two ways. Either continental or regional geography is dropped at the end of the sixth year of the elementary school or it is carried unchanged or modified into the first year of the junior high school—the old seventh grade. If the former plan is followed the systematic study of geography that *every one* may or might find useful is dropped just at the time when the increasing abilities of well-trained pupils make it possible for regional geography, whether taught by old methods or new, to be really a contribution to life preparation. In some schools geography in the junior high-school years is devoted to the elements of commercial and industrial geography, and no all-round regional study is given. Children are again "fed, clothed and sheltered" as they have been

[7] Report Commissioner of Education, Vol. 1, p. 147. Washington, Government Printing Office, 1915.

perhaps several times in the earlier years of school geography. Owing to the lack of good texts and equipment and to the inadequate training of the teachers, the work often becomes less serious and satisfying than the work it displaces.

Where regional geography is continued in the first year of the junior high school, it is usually made somewhat commercial in flavor and fills a need that all recognize as worth while. At present the best work for junior high schools has yet to be found. The problem is before us and any consideration of science work, including geography, in secondary schools must take account of this movement and be organized accordingly.

General science is a title that to-day looms large in educational discussion, and under it is included the work in science for the earlier years of the old type high school and the upper years of the newer junior high school. Only six years ago a committee of the National Education Association[8] recommended a year course in geography for the first year of high schools, "about one half to be devoted to the larger topics in physical geography, and that the remainder of the year be given to a study of North America and Europe." This recommendation varied but little from those of a report made to this association in 1910.[9]

Since then general science, or elementary science, has come in with a rush so impetuous that even its promoters have been swept from their feet and have found some difficulty in readjusting themselves. The effect has been in many cases to crowd geography from the curriculum.

The content of the course in general science is generally determined, as is much of our work in elementary and secondary schools, by the available texts. Three types of courses are in vogue. One type includes selected items from astronomy, biology, physics, physical geography, etc., in no necessary order or sequence—a sort of idealistic kaleidoscopic offering that is sometimes more "general" or "elementary" than science. The second type consists of a course organized around physical geography, biology or physical science as a core, and includes special emphasis of the cross relations with other sciences, or parts thereof. By this plan of organization the unity of an individual science is minimized but not lost and the applications to life phenomena are brought out. The third type is more striking in that it involves cutting across all the sciences, ignoring the often meaningless classification of adults and organizing class work about selected experiences or phenomena that inquiring youth want to know about and which are worthy of systematic study. House sanitation, for instance, may involve topics from physics, chemistry, biology and geography.

This is an illustration of the third movement in education of widespread significance—the project and the problem methods of teaching. Any one who has noticed the interest that boys take in the popular magazines devoted to the presentation of recent progress in applied science, and has used materials from them as an introduction to a knowledge of the scientific principles involved, believes in the project method of teaching for *his* boy, however strong his conviction may be that boys in general should follow the straight and narrow, and usually too steep paths of pure science. As one of the teaching exponents of the "project method" of teaching general science expresses it:[10]

[8] *Journal of Geography*, Vol. VIII., No. 1, September, 1909, pp. 1–9.

[9] *Journal of Geography*, Vol. VIII., No. 7, March, 1910, pp. 159–63.

[10] John F. Woodhull, "Science Teaching by Projects," *School Science and Mathematics*, Vol. 15, pp. 225–32.

Organization of subject matter must be around the knowledge of the pupil, not around that of the teacher or syllabus maker. In science, as in other subjects, much of the subject matter dealt with today by the subject-study method is of such a nature that in out-of-school hours and in after-school years it remains unused and so is forgotten. This is not true of the project method. The knowledge which is the boy's quest here is knowledge of which he sees the need. Being needed and used, year by year, it will tend to be distinctly remembered. The project method in general science is more specialized than any portion of the college preparatory science, and like a dog pursuing a hare, it has a specific aim, albeit it jumps those useless boundary fences between the various fields of science.

General science, in other words, is a protest, based on psychological principles, against the unhumanized science that has worried pupils these many years in the earlier years of high-school life.

The project method of selecting units for study may be and often is employed without breaking the old-time boundaries of the several sciences. Within each science, as for instance geography, problems of human or personal interest may be selected, the solution of which leads to an understanding of the principles and facts of geography that are ordinarily presented in text-books in a formal order. To quote from one of the more recent presentations of this method of study:[11]

A problematic situation, then, and not a recitation or a lecture demonstration or a laboratory exercise, should be the unit of instruction, excepting in the case of formal review lessons, and even the latter are better when thrown into problematic form. The aim of the student should be to arrive by correct scientific thinking and experimenting at the solution of a significant problem, rather than to recite a lesson, or do a stunt in the laboratory for the rather uninteresting purpose of getting a passable mark or escaping such disagreeable consequences as may be expected to follow a failure to satisfy the teacher's demands.

[11] G. R. Twiss, "The Natural Sciences, in Monroe's Principles of Secondary Education," Chapter XII. New York, Macmillan Company, 1915.

This difference in the attitude of the pupil toward the unit of instruction may seem to some to be of little consequence so long as the pupils do the required work; but it is really the condition that determines whether the work of the instructor shall be real scientific teaching or mere perfunctory school keeping. It is the condition that determines whether the pupils are to get training that shall make them at home among scientific ideas and scientific or practical problems, or are merely to be crammed with words and processes that they can not intelligently connect with things that are meaningful to them in life. . . . To effect his adjustment to his environment man must understand it—he must comprehend it; and herein lies the central motive for the study of geography. The process of adjustment, which is life itself, gives rise to multitudes of problems to be solved. Problems of vital utility and problems of absorbing intellectual interest grow directly out of the pupil's daily life, and reach out to the distant parts of the earth and through millions of miles of space to the sun.

The problem method of teaching, founded on proved psychological principles, and advocated by our keenest philosophical thinkers in education, is making every educational worker in each great field of study stop, look, think—and then think again.

The junior high school is requiring an organization of high-school geography work to meet a new need. General science is crowding geography, or more properly physical geography, from its time-honored place in the first year of high-school work, and makes necessary a reconsideration of where geography shall be placed and what shall be taught. The recent development of the problem method of teaching—an old friend that the best teachers have long used unconsciously—is now becoming a rough tool for the beginner and the novice.

As a result, geography, which we believe has worth that can not be challenged, must be approached from a new standpoint. If the geographers do not help in this reorganization and redirection of geography, the task will be taken from our hands and

chaos may result. A study of the literature of geography teaching shows that many educational leaders do not realize the significance or the beauties of the subject. They accept the table of contents of the formal texts on physical and commercial geography (of which nearly thirty different ones are now in use) as a digest of geography, not of special phases thereof, and either discard the subject as beyond redemption or accept it as something that must be endured. Few realize that there is any other geography than the physical and commercial geography of the last few years, though several reports advocating the development of regional geography, and the humanizing of physical geography, have been widely distributed and much discussed in recent years.

A study of the printed courses of study of 219 high schools from all parts of the country, of the answers to a series of questions received from 76 superintendents in large cities, of 24 replies to a similar questionnaire sent to a much larger number of high-school teachers—selected mainly by members of this association as the best and most successful teachers they knew—as well as 17 replies to a questionnaire sent recently to members of this association, shows emphatically that geography in high schools is in a rut and generally out of favor.

The printed announcements of 219 high schools, incomplete as they are as to details, indicate that geography is increasing in significance only in business or commercial courses. Excursions and field work are offered in but few schools, laboratory work is noted but rarely. The most favorable fact is that in more than half the schools giving geography, five hours a week are devoted to it, a fact more characteristic of business courses than of other courses. The dry facts as to the status of geography are sufficiently discouraging, but the detailed reasons for the facts, as given by teachers and superintendents, are even more so. We can draw many conclusions, according to our interests and points of view, as to why geography teaching is not more successful in secondary schools. We would all probably agree that geography in secondary schools suffers because it is not tied up with the earlier work and leads nowhere. Geography in schools lacks unity and purpose and hence strength. We as geographers have been putting our approval on a type of secondary-school geography in no way related to or based on the earlier school work. Students in the stress of secondary schools can have no working use of the details of their earlier work, unless those details are used in their regular work. When pupils have been exposed to no locational work for five or six years, certainly since they left the seventh grade of the elementary school, have college and normal school teachers a right to charge ignorance of location as the chief geographic weakness of high-school graduates? Have we been consistent or far sighted? When teachers are seemingly unaware, as their replies would indicate, that there is anything new in methods of geography teaching, or that they need pay attention to educational principles or movements, can we wonder that geography is not, to put it mildly, a universally sought elective.

We lament the poor teaching of geography in high schools and yet do not aid in its betterment either by showing how to get the real spirit of geography into the formal work, or by paying heed to the tendencies of educational thought. We can not play ostriches any longer and be self-satisfied in our exposed isolation. Neither can we rightly criticize geography teaching in secondary schools as being bad when in most high schools, outside of a few large cities, the geography work is not sufficient

to demand the full time of an adequately trained teacher. To-day, as shown by the replies received from questionnaires, and in the report[12] of a study in the high schools of the middle west, the *special* teacher of geography is rare. Of fifty-eight teachers of geography in fifty-three high schools, eight taught geography only, and these were all in one school. The specially trained teacher of geography is even rarer. Of the fifty-eight teachers mentioned, only nine had had more than one year's work in geography in normal school or college. Usually the teacher of geography teaches one or more other sciences, or some other subjects, perhaps physical training or stenography. The usual teacher of geography is a teacher of science or commercial subjects.

The lack of trained teachers of geography in the high schools is not due to lack of supply so much as to a lack of demand. An increased demand will bring a supply. We must put a new spirit and a new content into high-school geography. The testimony secured from all available sources shows that for the country as a whole high-school geography is to-day in a slough of despond as deep as was the case before the revolutionary report of the Committee of Ten in 1893. Other subjects have responded to educational demands, but geography has changed but little in content or spirit, as the statistics as to the text-books most used by untrained teachers indicate. There is a new physics and a new history, but geography has not kept pace with the subjects to which it is most closely allied. The most modern text-books of history, once a dry listing of events as formal as the asteroids that still find a place in some courses of physical geography, are to-day appealing presentations of the evolution of human institutions and of human public opinions. The authors are presenting human activities of the past against the background of geographic conditions. The details of the history of old are there but the emphasis is on their significance at the time and on their influence on future events. The modern text in high-school history is a text almost in applied human geography.

Meanwhile the old content of physical geography for secondary schools has persisted with but little change, or if we have included any phases of applied geography in our texts we have often done so in a forced or perhaps even apologetic way. In recent years some teachers and writers have made significant advances in humanizing physical geography, but so great is the inertia of the past that no one has as yet put forth any complete constructive program for the future high-school geography, which must be educationally sound, geographically strong and broad, and really worth studying for the usableness of its content. It is in part due to the demand that geography shall be worth while that we owe the present tremendous significance of commercial geography, as yet not wholly devoid of its lists of "furs, feathers, gums and resins."

Whether it be in physical or commercial geography, pupils in secondary schools are to-day largely memorizing facts and principles, often with no conception of their relative significance or relationships, even when accompanied by so-called laboratory work. In fact the character of the often forced laboratory work has been, and still is, a large factor in making secondary-school geography formal and remote. When a school program calls for two or three class periods a week, and a double laboratory period, as is often the case, work must be ready for the laboratory period whether it is useful, pertinent or just

[12] E. E. Ramsey, "Physical Geography in the High School," *School Science and Mathematics*, Vol. 11, 1911, pp. 838–48; Vol. 12, pp. 45–54; 114–25.

"busy work." Laboratory work for secondary-school courses in physical and commercial geography is often a strange mixture of the pertinent and the impertinent. One problem may be too severe for a trained university graduate student to perform in the required time, and the next may be so simple and obvious that it would be solved offhand by a bright child in the fourth grade of the elementary school. Exercises devoted to the identification of minerals and rocks, to the blind copying of maps from a text, or to the drawing of layers in a sand bank, so common in college entrance notebooks, indicate how abundant is "busy work" with no relation to the course of study or the text-book. Certainly separate laboratory periods in the early years of the high-school course are pedagogically unwise. In these formative years training in how to study with the least waste, but not necessarily with the least expenditure of energy, is a vital part of school work. The teacher should be free to teach every class period by such methods as will best promote the efficiency of his pupils and their advancement in understanding and appreciation of the subject involved. The study of geographical facts, either first hand or through some graphic representation of them, should be a constant feature in early geography training and not a stunt set for a certain special time.

Geography for secondary schools will in time be geography—and geography is not a synonym for physical geography or commercial geography. Geography is a human as much as it is an earth science. Its larger problems are human problems that involve a study not only of the influencing conditions of the physical environment, but of the economic and social conditions that may be as basic as the physical conditions. These larger problems are not wholly commercial or industrial. Commercial geography bears about the same relation to human geography that the physiography of the land or water does to physical geography. It is only a special phase of the larger subject, but a phase that can not be ignored in any complete study.

Some problems of human geography are so inclusive and involved that they can only be efficiently handled by a past master in the subject. Others are so simple and personal and appealing that they have long formed a part of the work in the early years of the elementary school. It is possible to select a series of problems in human geography, adapted to the needs, interests and abilities of adolescent pupils, and through the study of such problems to develop the principles of human and physical geography. Real problems, appreciated by the pupils as worth solving at the time, need not be merely of temporary interest or value. The simpler and more personal problems may serve as an introduction to larger, less personal, but no less interesting national or international problems until one comes to the limits of powers of secondary pupils. Pupils who leave the secondary school with an interest in the larger problems still before them, and with a knowledge of how to approach these problems in later years, are, at least in part, prepared for their life task, which will consist of solving problems. An interest in and an ability to attack problems of the intellect are contributions to life preparation and life satisfactions devoutly to be sought as purposes in education. Geography is a vibrant and not a static science. Its scope and limits are not fixed; it is a life science dealing with living things and evolutionary forces.

Our secondary texts and courses of study have unconsciously been framed to give pupils the impression that the subject is fixed, definite and complete—and that there

is nothing more to be learned beyond the cover of the given book. Our methods of teaching have confirmed pupils in the belief and the hope they will not be disappointed in that belief.

The problem method of approach enables us to deal with the same basal content, so as to make it a life-giving and thought-provoking subject. Further, this method will minimize the deadening influence of pure memory work which so long was considered the main phase of teaching. Facts and principles will be remembered because they are useful and because they are properly associated psychologically. "Discipline" will be secured through the efficient training of the enquiring mind in solving scientific problems, and the methods of work employed will make easier the study of other sciences approached in the same way.

This vitalized geography will be organized according to educational principles and will make use of the methods of teaching known to be best adapted to adolescence. Laboratory work, recitations, quizzes, or any other desirable plan will be brought in when most serviceable. The development of the individual and class will go hand in hand with the development of the subject and not lag so far behind that it may be forgotten as a purpose in teaching. The preceding general science will lay a foundation of content and method for humanized geography, and the breaks between the sciences will be less obvious than at present. The classifications and categories, so beloved by the adult expert, will be introduced as they are needed and can be used in an understanding way. The classes of land forms that are intelligible only to the adult trained in structural geology will be dropped from our secondary texts and courses of study. The principles of climatology will receive greater emphasis and the significant generalizations of human geography will be made prominent.

The new geography will lead pupils to appreciate the physical, economic and social causes underlying the consequences seen in human and life geography, so far as their age and powers will permit. This new geography will find its application in history, in economics and the other distributive subjects. Location will come back because the course will deal with facts and relations placed somewhere, and centering around some human group and its problems. Being a subject of value in the interpretation of human affairs, in making clear the story of the past as well as the conditions of the present, it will be used in other subjects. The historians have already shown a way in which geography can be made serviceable to them. Perhaps the geography teacher of the future in many secondary schools will be the teacher of history or economics—certainly he would probably be more effective than a teacher of typewriting or commercial law.

This in brief is the general plan of the geography in high schools in the near future, as many educators and geographers see it. Some teachers have been teaching this type of geography for several years in spite of the difficulties confronting them. They are the forceful few who have caught the spirit of modern geography and, trained in its content and in education, have dared to experiment.

Any effective reorganization of high-school geography to meet "the situation that confronts us," the beginning of a revolution in geography teaching as epochal as that of the nineties—depends on many practical factors. We must have text-books in human and physical geography organized scientifically and better unified than many of the current books on commercial geography. As the new geography will in-

volve the study not only of the distribution of people, but of the forms of life on which humanity depends, and will include a study of countries as well as people, we must have an adequate school atlas for America, similar to but yet different from those available in several countries abroad. We must have class-room guides involving the study of other geographic materials than text-books and atlases, and yet not wholly dependent upon topographic maps, agricultural bulletins and census reports, which are often mere makeshifts for the real thing. Finally we must have teachers of proper training, who have caught the spirit of geography and of modern education, and who want to teach youths geography and not merely some phase of geography to youths. The demand for teachers of this type, which already in fact exists, may involve our colleges and normal schools, few of which as yet pay much attention to geography.[13] Perhaps the day will come when the paths blazed by a few colleges, and relatively fewer normals, in real geography teaching will be more generally followed and geography will come to its own in American education. The opportunity and demand are here, the responsibility confronts us. Self-preservation, and the increasing number of geographers who are winning their way to the front through their studies of life geography, would seem to suggest the lines of advance we should follow.

Geography can not be what it should if educational leaders, untrained in geography, are to direct its future course. Neither can a geographer develop his subject to its highest degree if he looks at it only from the window that has given him the most pleasing vistas of the science and pays no heed to the subject as a whole, or to the new conditions that modern educational science has brought about. Knowledge is becoming more and more specialized; progress is being made so fast in all sciences that the all-round naturalist, able to teach any science well, is almost an impossibility. Modern education is a science and an art. It is the necessary handmaid of all subjects that should enter into the training of youth. Let us then seek its aid. With our eyes turned ever toward the ideal, and yet recognizing that it is a practical problem before us, let us take such steps into the future as the best testimony of all interested, specially trained experts in the several cooperating sciences, warrants. Then geography, being proved of value and not merely taken on authority, will come into its own in all phases of education.

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[13] "A Study of Geography in Normal Schools," *Teachers College Record*, March, 1914, pp. 1–12.

PROVISION FOR THE EDUCATION OF THE CITY CHILD[1]

As the well-being of their people is the sole object of their existence the republics of the Western Hemisphere have a lively concern for public education. Their care for the instruction of all who dwell within their territory is due not merely to the consideration that education is the means by which the republican form of government preserves itself, but rather because it is their philosophy that life without enlightenment and understanding is merely brute life. They exist to make man free—not free politically only, but free in the larger sense. They give of their bounty to the coming generation that their citizens may not be in slavery to ignorance, to superstition, to despotic social conditions, to un-

[1] Read before the Subsection on Elementary Education of the Pan-American Scientific Congress.

checked impulse, to the tyrants of the neighborhood or of the nation. They realize that education is the sole and only road to national freedom, not because it will make those who receive it adherents of the government which provides it, but because it offers the only means of freeing the citizen from anti-social tendencies, and making him master of himself, and until he is master of himself the free state which he helps to create can not endure. The education by which they build their continuing freedom is not, therefore, a means to that freedom, it itself is that freedom, that liberal and unconstrained spirit of which self-imposed laws, popularly selected officers and a system of courts responsible to the people are but functional expressions. This education does not exist for the state, the state exists that it may be. For government as well as all the other institutions of social life exist that folks of a certain kind may be brought into being. Free citizens make free governments and keep them free, but they also make free agriculture, free industry, free commerce, free science, free art, free literature and a free spiritual and social life. The interest of our governments in maintaining public education is not merely that of providing a kind of insurance against the destruction of republican institutions. It is that but it is very much more than that—it is nothing short of the development of the life of intelligence in every town and countryside of this western world.

Our particular question is what are the agencies which must be created to perform this service in cities. Much depends upon the way the city answers, for it is a commonplace that our cities lead the enterprise of the nation to which they belong; that they are the maelstrom of struggle, the forcing house of progress. They tend to standardize values and to set the pace for the striving of the entire people.

The last century witnessed a rushing of the population of the earth to the great centers. No country was quite exempt from this cityward movement. In 1910 the urban population of the United States was 46.3 per cent. At present it is very nearly fifty per cent. Nearly or quite half of the population of the earth now dwells in cities. Through its city schools, therefore, the nations must not only shape the conditions of their own persistence in being but must enfranchise a large proportion of their people. It has frequently been pointed out that the task of the city school system is inherently harder than the task of the village and country school. The farmer's child or the artisan's child in the village learns certain lessons and can not help learning them just because he is fortunate enough to be born in conditions where the relations of men to nature and to each other are self evident. He sees all the men about him at work and very early develops a keen realization of the fact that without work one can not eat. He becomes an unarticled apprentice to his father's trade almost as soon as he can walk. Public opinion in the little community in which every one knows every one else and talks much about them draws very sharp lines about the virtues and holds him very strictly to a narrow path. The lazy man, the good-for-nothing, the drunkard, the reprobate he very early learns to distinguish from the approved members of his group. Man's real relation to his fellows he can not escape from learning. No more can he escape from learning man's relation to the things of nature—the soil, the crops, the trees, the rain, the seasons. He takes to school a large fund of very genuine knowledge. His daily out-of-school duties keep this knowledge growing constantly and contribute significance to his school lessons. He lives in an unlittered world of wide horizons full of interesting and beautiful objects with

plenty of room to play and range in. He is surrounded by hard-working people who till the soil for a living and must plan their work from season to season. They know few pleasures and possess few luxuries. In this environment he is not apt to develop false values. He grows up among real things and real folks. It was not for nothing that Rousseau took Emile to the country. Its schools may be poor, but from the country itself one gets a very real education.

How thin and unprofitable the life of the city child seems beside it! He does not make friends with the trees or the brook or know the grass or the wild flowers. He has never dug up the earth or planted seeds and waited impatiently for them to come up. He can not fell a tree or cut it into firewood. He has never learned that all men live by work. Indeed he sees so many of them getting their living by their wits that that is apt to seem the best way to him. He does not know the name of the man who lives next door and learns few lessons of right or wrong conduct from him. He has little room to range in, no living things to tend, no daily tale of chores to do. The older people who are about are too busy with their own affairs to answer his questions or train him in the rudiments of their trades. His environment does not teach him much. He is left largely to his own resources. If his parents are more than usually solicitous for his welfare they will provide an artificial environment in which many of the shortcomings of his natural environment are overcome. But the agency which is peculiarly charged and commissioned to do this is the public school. It exists in the midst of the crowded city to assure to the young an opportunity to grow up in fuller and richer surroundings than those which the city tenements provide. It furnishes a playground where boys and girls may perform the ten thousand experiments in cooperative endeavor which make play so valuable a part of the training for life. It must have grounds and equipment to teach these lessons. In its way it provides a knowledge of growing things and at its best it maintains school gardens where seeds are planted and the crop tended. It provides workshops with elementary lessons in the use of tools, the nature of materials and the significance of human labor. It tries by excursions to factories and farms to give its pupils a first-hand knowledge of the work that is going on about them. It cares for their bodies with scientific solicitude and in addition it teaches them all the lessons with which the best country or village school finds it necessary to supplement the education which life in the country gives the country child. When looked at in this way it will be seen that the city school undertakes a vast responsibility. Because it attempts to develop a real appreciation of social life apart from the basic conditions of that life the problem of the city school is the greatest and most difficult of all.

There are, to be sure, certain credits to be placed on the other side. If the city obscures the view of fundamental things and relations it does usually give great attention to providing an artificial environment in which these lessons may be learned. Those who dwell in cities value the education of their children and are both willing and able to pay for it. Opportunities for natural education are so restricted that the need for artificial or specially provided education is self evident. The city, therefore, becomes the home of scientific knowledge and of skill, while the country, being less conscious of problems and difficulties, tends to repeat its goodness of the day before without very heroic efforts to improve upon it. The cities must and do provide

better schools and stimulate the country to supplement its superior natural education with more and better conscious training. But as the city must place a larger reliance upon the school than the country does, the problem of providing education in cities is much more acute there. It takes many forms. The first and perhaps the greatest of all since other problems connected with the schools can not be solved until it is answered is how shall the schools of the city be administered.

Is education one of the public interests of the local community which should share alike with all the other local interests? Should it be regulated and administered by the local officers who control the police, the water supply, the streets, the markets, the health regulations and the finances of the city? When the city's budget is made and the public money is distributed to the several departments should the claim of the schools to support be regarded as on a parity with the other activities of the city? Or should the schools be regarded as a preferred creditor of government and the claim of education as a major claim upon the community? Ever since the days of Plato thinkers who have investigated this subject have with one accord insisted that education is the chief means to the good life which the city and the state exist to bring into being. That its claims must not be put into one bag with the other interests of local government and administered and financed by officials who regard it as of no more importance than the interest of docks and streets, fire protection, and building ordinances. That the welfare of the young is so preeminently vital to the nation or the state that it must create and maintain special agencies for safeguarding their interests. Like the administration of justice and the passing of general laws, public education must be regarded not as a concern of the local government, but of the larger community which is the state or the nation. If a city does not keep its streets clean or in good repair, if it does not build its buildings properly or protect them against fire, if it does not develop a good water supply or provide adequate sewers the harm which results is a local harm; but if it is negligent and indifferent in educating its children, if it administers its schools badly, hires poor teachers, underpays them or enforces its compulsory education laws in a lax fashion, the whole state suffers, for the character of a part of its citizens is allowed to deteriorate and it is being weakened through negligence in one quarter. Since the citizens of the state or the nation are partners in the common business of living together and maintaining the civilization which the state is organized to create, if any part of them fail in that which makes for the welfare of all, the whole state suffers.

It is this consideration which has led lawmakers in America to insist that public education is and must be a general not a municipal affair. It is its intimate relation to the life and well-being of the entire state which has led them to regulate it by general laws, not by municipal ordinances, and to create special departments of administration and corps of state officers to maintain it, for their desire has been from the first to keep the interests of the children from being exposed to the taint of local municipal politics and to keep the business of the public schools from being mixed up and confused with local municipal interests and business. To the question then how can the schools of cities be safeguarded and kept free from the contamination and mismanagement of city administration the answer is only by the nation or the state taking the entire responsibility for conducting them, financing them by means of general laws and creating state

boards of school officers in each locality to administer them. There can be no doubt that if the people of the larger political community are awake to the interest of the state as a whole in matters of public education they will take this step. But it is not merely for the sake of good and properly maintained city schools that this independence of the school agencies and administration must be insisted upon; there is another reason for making the city schools a part of the larger system of the state or the nation. They need the oversight of the central government that they may be kept from falling a prey to local indifference, local inefficiency, local factions and local provincialism, but the schools of the country and of the smaller towns and villages need to be parts of the same system of public education to which the city schools belong in order that they may be stimulated and urged forward and share in the progress of the city school systems. Any country which regards education as an entirely local matter is certain to have many different kinds of it, varying from the worst to something like the best, but if its localities are bound together to accomplish this work the success of one is bound in some measure to be the success of all of them and the strength of one the strength of all. Mutuality in educational endeavor should therefore be the order and to be effective it requires that the state or the nation rather than the locality shall direct the schools. The wisdom and devotion of the whole population is a better safeguard than the wisdom and devotion of each separate locality taken by itself. The people of the different communities have need of each other; that is the reason why they are parts of the same state, not independent states themselves; and in nothing do they need each other more than in planning and deliberating about the welfare of the young and in stimulating each other to the greatest energy in training them, as Aristotle says: "according to the Constitution."

The city school system is a creation of law. If the law which directs it is uncertain and vague, if it is insufficient and contradictory the effect is to weaken and confuse the work of the schools. There are cities which spend millions on public education and have only second or third rate schools because they have not seen fit to make the laws which govern them clear and definite. They are continually torn by wrangling among officials as to whose function it is to direct the work of the teachers and to make provision for their labors. Perpetual fighting among the officials in charge of the city and of the schools of course disturbs the work of the teachers. That work is peculiarly sensitive to disturbances by such unsettling influences. Where agitation is rife and the status of the school system is not definitely determined the most devoted body of teachers in the world could not overcome the handicap under which they are forced to labor. The ill effect of such conditions is so evident that the first principle of school administration and the most important of all is that the law governing the public schools and fixing responsibility for them must be clear and definite. Even a bad education law, if its provisions are definite and certain, is to be preferred to an otherwise good law which does not fix responsibility, but leaves the schools a prey to any official who may seize control of them.

But having created a system of schools under general laws which are definite and easily determined, and entrusted its administration to a body of locally elected state officers rather than a body of officials who are parts of the somewhat irresponsible local government, the welfare of the schools depends in no small measure upon how the

board of education or the school committee as it is sometimes called systematizes its duties. There is an old saying which reminds us that everybody's business is nobody's business. Directing the schools of a city is a vast undertaking which can not be performed if this, that and the other board, committee or individual each has a hand in it and definite responsibility attaches to no one. The school board of a city is a public corporation which administers a great business. I remember that some years ago the auditor general of the Chinese Republic asked how much money the board of education of New York City expended each year, and when I replied more than $50,000,000 he said: "Why that is more than the central government of China spends annually!" But the real significance of its operation is not to be arrived at by thinking of the amount of money it handles, but rather of the number of lives.

Those who manage large private businesses have learned that they must organize their work, but city boards of education, at least in the United States, have not all learned this lesson. They sometimes conduct their business as though it were four or five independent businesses in place of one organic whole. Indeed sometimes we find a separate public corporation quite independent of the board of education charged with the duty of building and caring for the schoolhouses, while the board of education conducts school in them. Most of the boards which are elected to administer the schools subdivide themselves into a series of standing committees, each of which performs a certain part of the work of the board almost as though it were an independent board itself. Many boards seem to think that it is their function to make the course of study and themselves direct the instruction and the discipline in the schools. All this makes for confusion. Public business, if it is to be done effectively, must be organized as carefully as private business is.

In conducting the schools of a city the people employ two kinds of officers. Since they can not meet in a town meeting and themselves order school buildings built, and hire the teachers to teach in them, they either elect a board or a single individual to act as their representative in making the arrangements to maintain the schools. This board or representative is appointed by the community to look after its school interests; it is an agency created not to conduct the schools, but to see that they are conducted. It is a lay body, but the actual work of building schoolhouses, of making courses of study, of selecting teachers and supervising their instruction of the children, is a professional labor which can be performed only by those who have carefully fitted themselves by long years of study to perform it.

The board of education or the agency which takes its place is a committee of citizens chosen to represent the people in seeing that the schools are properly conducted. It is not to do the teaching or the supervising itself, but to select the proper persons to do it and to see that they do their work. It has several very definite duties. It must know the school law and protect it; it must thoroughly systematize its work, and to do so it must act as a board in the oversight of all of it, not as a series of more or less independent standing committees; it must treat all the parts of its undertaking as organic parts of one activity, and to do so it must bring them all under the control of a single executive officer or general manager of the schools. As every part of its work has the education of the children for its object its executive officer must be an educator. The board of education

should of course clearly understand that it is created primarily not to run schools cheaply, and so to keep down taxes for its community, but to invest the money of that community in the education of its children; that the community is interested far more in its success in educating the children than in any false economies which it may achieve. It must shape the policies which are to be carried out in the school system. It must make by-laws to control its work and it should systematize it so completely that the superintendent and each of his assistants, and each principal, each teacher, each clerk and each janitor in its employ will know quite definitely what his duties are and to whom he is responsible for his instructions and by whom he is to be held accountable and to whom he is to make complaint, when things go wrong. The board of education should devise and require a system of reports from its subordinates which will keep it in touch with their accomplishment of its work. One of the chief functions of the lay body in charge of the schools is to sit as a court of appeal to which any difficulty arising out of the conduct of the schools may be submitted after it has first been brought to the proper staff officer and he has failed to adjust it satisfactorily.

The greatest responsibility of the lay authority in charge of the system is to select the educator who shall act as its executive officer and general manager of the schools. In a sense everything that is to be done depends upon him. And as Plato says, "He who is elected, and he who is the elector, should consider that of all the great offices of state this is the greatest." It is this man who must see the vision of the days which are yet to be and of the part which the young people through his nurture are to take in them. He must have the pattern of aspiration in his soul that he may guide them to it. All science and all philosophy would not provide too rich a training to fit him for his task. The nature of education must be his especial study. He must devote his life to develop the ideals of the nation and of humanity at large in the person of each one of the students in the schools under his care. His supreme interest in the children will determine his selection of the teachers who are to assist in this great task. Political considerations or religious or geographical considerations will not influence him in choosing them. His one requirement will be that they are fitted by interest, by education and by skill to be the guardians of the generation which is entering upon the control of human affairs. He will select them because they are proper coworkers and for no other reason and he will strive to secure for them such compensation as their work requires and deserves.

A staff constituted in this way laboring in a city whose educational interests are kept free from the encroachment of local political activities by being directed by the laws of the state as a part of the work of the state, and carefully organized and guided by a lay board of citizens who separate their functions quite clearly from the functions of the trained director and the trained teachers whom they employ, will deliberate together about courses of study and methods to be employed in the instructing of the children. They will unify their work because their purpose is unified and they will labor harmoniously to the common end, for they are one in purpose and spirit. Fortunate indeed is that city whose children shall be reared by such a company. This good fortune, however, is not difficult for any city to attain. It has but to see that from the standpoint of the state and of civilization education is the one thing needful, and then to provide such an organiza-

tion of its school interests as will separate them entirely from local political considerations and make possible the systematizing of all its work to the sole end of ministering to the needs of its children.

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EDUCATIONAL EVENTS

VOCATIONAL EDUCATION SURVEY OF RICHMOND, VA.

How to make the work of the public schools more practically useful in preparing children for vocations which they wish to follow is a question which many cities are trying to answer. While the question of vocational education is one fundamentally much broader than the temporary need of any locality or industry, each city must adapt its plan to the social, industrial and educational conditions of the community. The way one city has sought to solve this problem is shown in a report on a vocational education survey of Richmond, Va., published by the U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics of the Department of Labor as its Bulletin 162. The survey described was made under the auspices of a survey committee organized by the National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education, and having the cooperation of the U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, the U. S. Bureau of Education, the Russell Sage Foundation, and the school authorities and citizens of Richmond.

The chief purpose of this survey was to secure for Richmond an accurate knowledge of the industrial and school facts and conditions necessary in developing a plan of vocational education to serve the practical needs of children preparing for the various vocations and of employers and employees. A special object of the survey was to secure the cooperation of national and local public and private agencies in the making of a survey which might be useful as a model for studies in other localities where the need of a better program of vocational education was pressing.

The recommendations of the survey committee deal with the problem of financing vocational education in Richmond, compulsory attendance, types of schools and courses of study for boys and men, and for girls and women; prevocational education for boys, and the place of private institutions receiving city moneys in the general plan for vocational education. The survey committee found a definite need for the offering of educational facilities for men and boys already employed. It was evident that the supply of efficient journeymen was inadequate, that the amount of systematic instruction given in a shop was small, and that the amount of apprenticeship training was limited. The men themselves desired further educational advantages and were personally interested in trade education. Many workers had taken courses at their own expense, and since leaving the regular school. The majority of these workers had taken courses bearing directly upon their trades. The survey committee recommended the organization of evening and part-time schools and courses for boys and men already employed, and outlined general and industrial courses for the trades which the survey had covered.

The survey committee were of the opinion that the white women and girls of Richmond who were employed in manufacturing and mechanical pursuits were engaged in operations which can be learned more quickly in the factory than in the school, largely because the amount of technical training and trade information necessary is too meager to warrant the expenditure of public money for equipment and instruction. There was need of department store and salesmanship training through part-time and continuation classes. Steps were taken to meet this need before the completion of the survey. The conclusion was reached that there was no need or possibility of a girl's trade school for Richmond. A demand, however, was found to exist for courses of training in the practical arts as a part of the general education of girls over thirteen years of age. Instruction in home economics, except in specialized courses planned and followed for the purpose of earning a livelihood, in the committee's opinion, should not be re-

garded as vocational education for wage earning, but as a valuable and necessary part of general education to which every girl is entitled as a part of her adequate preparation for living.

CONSOLIDATION OF RURAL SCHOOLS IN NORTH DAKOTA

ACCORDING to a letter of the Bureau of Education the schools of Grand Forks County, North Dakota, were originally organized under the old district system with the result that school consolidation has been slow and difficult to obtain. However, where such schools have been established they have come to stay and have proved so efficient as to stimulate improvement in all the schools of the county. School boards have been urged to improve their one-teacher schools so as to yield the highest possible efficiency. State aid for rural schools has encouraged school patrons to provide better school facilities, and has stimulated them to work toward putting their schools into the so-called "first class." The better conditions have become general. There are better heating and ventilating plants, schools furnished with single seats, and equipped with libraries, up-to-date text-books, pictures, maps, better water supply, cleaner toilets, and playground apparatus. Equipment has also been provided for teaching domestic science and agriculture both in the one-teacher schools and in the consolidated schools.

Not only has the material equipment been improved, but such organization has been effected that the interests of the home, the community, and the school are being developed together. The county superintendent has three assistants, two of whom assist in the field work—one as a school nurse, and the other as a school supervisor. The school nurse also works under the direction of the county board of health, thus bringing the school organization into closer touch with the other organizations of the county. Her work has resulted in improved school-room sanitation, in greater attention to personal hygiene, in checking the spread of contagious diseases, and most of all in developing among pupils, patrons and teachers a higher appreciation of good health and thorough instruction in ways of dealing with defective teeth, sight and hearing.

The school supervisor helps the teachers adapt the school work to the lives of the children. The industrial clubs of the county are well organized and represent the closest cooperation between home and school. Likewise the parent-teacher clubs stand for the common interests of home, school and community. There is much evidence that modern methods of instruction prevail in the schools. In some schools the Courtis standard tests in arithmetic are used. In one consolidated school a junior high school has been organized. Helpful school bulletins on methods of teaching and the content of the course of study are issued by the county school officials.

NORMAL-SCHOOL ENROLLMENT IN WISCONSIN

THE State Board of Education has compiled interpretative statistics of the change in the nature of Wisconsin normal-school enrollment during the past three years. The increase in our normal schools has been 22.5 per cent. or from 3,509 students in 1913–14 to 4,403 students in 1915–16. The Whitewater normal school shows the largest increase—61 per cent.

In 1913–14 70.6 per cent. of all the students in normal schools were enrolled in courses requiring high-school graduation. This year 76.5 per cent. are enrolled in such courses. The entire increase in enrollment has been in courses requiring high-school graduation. The total number of students in these courses has increased from 2,478 to 3,368, while the total in courses not requiring high-school graduation has remained about the same, being 1,035 this year and 1,031 two years ago.

The first three years of the five-year course, which is comparable to all high-school work, has decreased in three years from 601 to 487 students, and no students will be admitted to this course after this year. These facts show that the educational standard of the normal schools is materially growing.

As to the service of the normal schools to the country schools of Wisconsin a remark-

able advance has also been made. Two years ago 287 students were being trained especially for rural-school work by Wisconsin normal schools, and these students were enrolled in a course which did not require high-school graduation. The enrollment in the same course this year is 300, but in addition there are 155 enrolled in a new course which requires high-school graduation as a prerequisite. The total number of students being trained especially for rural school work is therefore 455, an increase of 59 per cent. in number, and a very great improvement in the educational requirement. Students graduating from the two-year high-school graduate rural course will receive the special aid of $10 a month from the state provided for by the last legislature.

THE UNIVERSITY OF VIRGINIA AND A COLLEGE FOR WOMEN

AT a special meeting of the Board of Visitors of the University of Virginia, the following preamble and resolution have been adopted, the vote standing 6 to 2:

WHEREAS, the conditions of our modern life render it essential to the welfare of the state that young women, as well as young men, have access to collegiate training in the arts and sciences, and

WHEREAS, the rector and visitors of the University of Virginia believe that the most practical and efficient mode of meeting this need would be found in the erection of a woman's college near the University of Virginia, and

WHEREAS, the rector and visitors are convinced that such a woman's college can be established and conducted in affiliation with the university without injuriously affecting the life, spirit, and traditions of the institution; therefore, be it

Resolved, That the rector and visitors recommend that the General Assembly authorize them to establish and maintain, as soon as sufficient funds are available by appropriation or endowment, a college for white women, coordinate with the College of the University of Virginia, wherein shall be offered for women courses of instruction equal, though not necessarily the same, as those given in the College of the State University for men, of equal breadth and thoroughness, and of identical standards of teaching and examination.

Resolved, further, That it is the sense of the rector and visitors that such college for women be located on the side of Charlottesville, opposite the present site of the university, and shall not be coeducational in character.

Resolved, further, That it is the sense of the rector and visitors that a sum of money, not less than $100,000, is necessary as an appropriation to provide for the initial expenses of building, equipping, and planning the college, which sum shall be available when an equal amount shall have been guaranteed to the rector and visitors from other sources.

EDUCATIONAL NOTES AND NEWS

CHARLES H. EHRENFELD, Ph.D., head of the department of science of the York (Pa.) Collegiate Institute since 1887, was elected president of the institution at a meeting of the board of trustees held on January 31. Dr. Ehrenfeld is successor to the late Rev. E. T. Jeffers, D.D., who was president from May, 1893, until his death last November.

SUPERINTENDENT WILLIAM WIRT, of Gary, Indiana, has asked Dr. J. R. Jewell, dean of the school of education of the University of Arkansas to associate himself with him in the supervision of the Gary schools during the year the system is undergoing a survey at the hands of the Carnegie Foundation.

PROFESSOR N. DWIGHT HARRIS, of Northwestern University, has been given leave of absence during the second semester and expects to spend the time in a trip to Japan, China and Korea.

PRESIDENT JOHN GRIER HIBBEN, of Princeton University, returning from the Pacific coast, addressed the students of the Rice Institute on February 11. In the afternoon of the same day Dr. Hibben spoke to a large audience in the City Auditorium of Houston on "Military Preparedness."

AT the fortieth anniversary of the opening of the Johns Hopkins University, on February 22, the address will be delivered by Dr. V. K. Wellington Koo, the Chinese Minister at Washington.

DIRECTOR CHARLES HUBBARD JUDD, of the school of education at the University of Chicago, is to give the chief address at the gen-

eral session of the Educational Conference of Cooperating Academies and High Schools to be held at the University of Chicago on April 14 and 15. Director Judd also has accepted an invitation to give the commencement address at the Moline, Illinois, high school in June.

DR. WILLIAM J. MEANS, dean of the medical college of the Ohio State University since its establishment, has tendered to the board of trustees, his resignation, to take effect on June 30. Dr. Means is said to take this step because of ill health. In an open letter to members of the medical faculty, President W. O. Thompson announces that a complete reorganization is to follow, and that all connected with the "instructional force" should consider their appointments as ending on June 30, in order that Dean Means's successor may have a free hand in reorganization.

PROFESSOR RAYMOND DODGE, of Wesleyan University, has been appointed non-resident lecturer in psychology at Columbia University for the academic year.

PROFESSOR DAVID P. BARROWS, of the University of California, is taking sabbatical leave and plans to spend the time in Europe. His course on the Far East will be given by Professor Payson J. Treat, of Stanford University, who will also conduct a seminar on foreign relations.

THE twelfth annual conference of the secondary school principals and teachers of the schools affiliated with the University of Cincinnati will be held at the university on February 19. A feature of the conference will be an address on Saturday morning by Dr. W. H. Faunce, president of Brown University, who will speak on "The Larger Meaning of Vocation."

THE division of history of the New York High School Teachers' Association met with the New York Conference of the Association of History Teachers of the Middle States and Maryland at Washington Irving High School, on February 12. Professor Edgar Dawson, of Hunter College, presented a report of the meeting of the American Historical Association, and an address on "Classroom Treatment of Recent Events in Europe and America" was made by Professor R. M. McElroy, of Princeton University.

DR. JAMES L. MCCONAUGHY, head of the educational department of Dartmouth College, will give a lecture on "Certain Aspects of Educational History," on March 9, at Middlebury College.

ON February 14, John Masefield, the English poet, lectured at the University of Illinois. On February 14, Dr. José María Gálvez, of the University of Chile, gave a lecture to the university public on "Removing the Barrier of Language." Dr. Gálvez was one of the Chilean delegates to the Pan-American Scientific Congress.

ALUMNI day at Columbia University was celebrated on Lincoln's birthday. The buildings and collections were on exhibition during the day. The lectures were given in the afternoon by Professor Francis Carter Wood, on "Phases of the Cancer Problem of Interest to the Layman"; Professor Hans Zinsser, on "Experiences with the Serbian Relief Expedition"; Professor M. C. Whittaker, on "The Manufacture of High Explosives," and Professor Ellery C. Stowell, on "The Rôle of Diplomacy."

PRESIDENT CHARLES F. THWING, of Western Reserve University, has announced seven additional series of lectures to be given in the near future, under the auspices of the McBride Lecture Fund. These lectures, beginning with two lectures by Professor Bliss Perry, of Harvard University, will extend through the months of February, March and April. "The Youth of Napoleon" and "The Making of Emerson" were the subjects of the lectures by Dr. Bliss Perry, on February 7 and 8. Other lecturers will be: Dr. Franklin B. Dyer, superintendent of schools, Boston; Professor G. Lowes Dickinson, of Cambridge University, England; Professor Paul Shorey, of the University of Chicago; Dean James Earl Russell, of Teachers College, Columbia University; Professor Ashley H. Thorndike, of Columbia University; Professor Barrett Wendell, of Harvard University.

OTIS WILLIAM CALDWELL, professor of botany and supervisor of natural science in the school of education at the University of Chicago, has accepted an invitation to deliver a series of lectures on "High School Science" before the State Normal School at Emporia, Kansas, during the week beginning on June 25. Among the topics to be discussed by Professor Caldwell will be reasons for teaching science; principles of selection and organization of elementary-school work in science; science and modern life; general science, its purpose, organization and method; and nature-study literature for grade teachers.

AN audience that taxed the capacity of Carnegie Hall, New York City, joined on February 12 in a memorable tribute to the personality and work of Booker T. Washington. Lines of people, both black and white, were in front of the doors long before the opening of the meeting, and many were unable to get places in the auditorium. Seth Low presided, and the speakers were Major R. R. Moton, who succeeds Mr. Washington as head of Tuskegee Institute; Dr. H. B. Frissell, president of Hampton Institute; W. H. Lewis; William G. Willcox, and Dr. James H. Dillard, president of the Jeanes Foundation for Rural Education. Mr. Low made a plea for assistance in raising the proposed Booker T. Washington endowment fund of $2,000,000, announcing that $650,000 had already been obtained.

ELY V. ZOLLARS, for many years president of Hiram College, at Hiram, O., has died at the age of sixty-nine years.

DARIUS HADLEY, a teacher in the Boston schools for forty years, died on February 10, at the age of seventy-four years. He was formerly principal of the Chatham High School and had been a teacher of natural sciences at Dean Academy.

MISS HARRIETTE W. TUTTLE, first principal of Northfield Seminary and assistant to former President Alice Freeman, of Wellesley College, died on February 7, aged fifty-five years.

MORSE HALL, housing the chemical department at Cornell University, was destroyed by fire early on the morning of February 13. The fire started in the photographic rooms of J. P. Troy on the third floor of the building. By the time the fire department reached the scene the entire third floor was a furnace. Zero weather and snow chilled and retarded the firemen in reaching the scene, and when they arrived they found the water pressure not strong enough to force a stream to the second floor. The library and some chemicals were saved, but valuable records of research were lost. Morse Hall was built in 1890 at a cost of $133,000; Mr. Andrew Carnegie gave $60,000 in 1911 for an addition. The insurance amounts to $200,000.

CAPE GIRARDEAU, Missouri, has dedicated a new high-school building costing about $100,000, exclusive of the ground. Addresses were made by Superintendent J. N. Crocker, President W. S. Dearmont, of the local State Normal School and the state superintendent of public instruction.

SAMUEL C. DOBBS, of Atlanta, Ga., has given $60,000 for the construction and furnishing of a dormitory for Emory University, at Oxford, Ga., which will accommodate 132 students.

BY the terms of the will of Philip Nichols Bliss, who died in Danbury recently, a fund of $30,000 is established for a permanent scholarship at Sheffield Scientific School, Yale University. The foundation was provided in a bequest of $14,000 by the late Starr Hoyt Nichols, of Danbury, whose estate Mr. Bliss inherited in trust. Mr. Bliss provided in his will for an additional $16,000. The scholarship is to be for natives of Danbury, or residents of the city, and the holders are to be selected by competitive examinations.

THE first annual report of the trustees of the Brown Alumni Loyalty Fund shows receipts during the year of $9,352 from 441 contributors, about one in ten of the alumni. Five members of the corporation promise annual contributions aggregating $9,000, beginning with the present year, the income to be devoted to increasing the salaries of professors.

A CORNELL SCHOOL OF COMMERCE of semi-graduate grade, similar to those at Harvard and Dartmouth, offering courses of training for business pursuits, two years in length, and leading to a master's degree, is recommended in a special committee report adopted by the university faculty this week. Such a school will be added to Cornell's curriculum as soon as an endowment for the purpose can be obtained.

AT the quarterly meeting of the board of trustees of Lafayette College the president was authorized to appoint committees of the alumni to visit the various departments of the college at least once annually. The work of these committees is to investigate the work and equipment of the department which it visits and to present a report in writing to the president with such comment and recommendations as they may deem wise.

THE registration of new students this month has raised New York University's total registration for the year beyond previous records. The new students in all departments total 570. Added to the 6,966 previously registered, the total of regular students is raised to 7,536, or 964 more than were on the rolls a year ago. Not included in this figure are about 2,000 students in the extramural division attending university classes in many parts of the metropolitan district. The distribution of new students in the schools of the university is as follows: School of commerce, 397; medical preparatory, 91; school of applied science, 32; university college, 28; Washington Square college, 11; school of pedagogy, 7; graduate school, 4; total, 570.

THE college presidents of the state of Illinois held a meeting at the University of Illinois on February 17. At these meetings, which are held more or less irregularly, it is the custom to consider educational questions that are of interest to these institutions and particularly the relation of the colleges to the state university.

THE *American Political Science Review* states that the National Municipal League, through the generosity of Hon. Morton Denison Hull, of Chicago, has established an annual prize of $250 to be awarded for the best essay on a subject connected with municipal government. The competition is open to post-graduate students who are, or who have been within a year preceding the date of the competition, registered and resident in any college or university of the United States offering distinct and independent instruction in municipal government.

THE Boston *Transcript* states that the Boston Young Men's Christian Association directors have planned to establish a school of liberal arts this coming fall, offering two years of instruction, and then turning over the students for the remainder of their academic work to the local colleges and universities where they may complete their courses and obtain an A.B. degree. Some months ago an announcement was made by the directors that it had been decided to give to their group of schools of college grade the name Boston Collegiate Institute. For certain reasons this name was objected to by another institution and the association officials withdrew it and reopened the matter for further consideration. After several months of debate, investigation and inquiry, a petition was drawn up by the deans and faculty and presented to the directors requesting that the schools be known as the Northeastern College of the Boston Young Men's Christian Association, and this name has been adopted by the directors at a special meeting.

SUPERINTENDENT GARBER states that there are now enrolled in the thirteen high schools of Philadelphia more than fifteen thousand pupils. This is a growth of 130 per cent. in ten years, and nearly 15 per cent. in a single year. With the completion of new high-school buildings under way the attendance is certain to be much greater. Next year it is estimated that nearly 10 per cent. of the pupils enrolled in the whole city will be in the high schools, and this does not take into consideration the denominational high schools and a large number of private academies, which would bring the total well up toward twenty thousand.

At a recent meeting of the Zoo Commission of Cincinnati with the park board, Superintendent Condon and representatives of the board of education and of the University of Cincinnati, a report was read advocating the purchase of the Zoo by the Park Board for the sum of $270,000. It was further suggested that the sum of $250,000 be raised as an endowment fund, the interest of which would be used for defraying current expenses. It was asked that the University of Cincinnati pay $5,000 annually to the Zoo, this money to be used for the purchase of new animals and equipment, the university receiving in return the privilege of free admission for all members of the faculty and the student body. It was asked that the board of education pay over to the Zoo $10,000 annually, and in return be permitted to send all the children of the public schools to the garden free of charge. Superintendent Condon spoke of the educational advantages of the Zoo Garden, and told how the relationship of this institution with the Cincinnati schools might be made closer, and how the schools might benefit by a greater use of the Zoo.

Enrollment of men students in the school of education of the University of Missouri has increased 65 per cent. this year, and the teachers' college has about the same number of men as are signed up in journalism, medicine or commerce. The enrollment of men in the school of education, which was 45 last year, is now 74. There are about 200 women working in education. The increased enrollment is coming from other divisions of the university. In former years, the enrollment of men in the school of education came almost entirely from normal schools. This year, many are coming from the teacher-training institutions, but more are graduates of some special divisions of the university and are making special preparation to teach some particular subject. The opportunities offered to teachers of agriculture is one cause of many men entering the teachers' college. Increased standards in schools is another cause of larger attendance. A teacher in the North-Central Association of Schools and Colleges must have taken work in education when he is employed. Teaching has become a better paying profession. Graduates of the University of Missouri enter teaching at a salary that compares favorably with the pay received by graduates in law, engineering, journalism and medicine. The increased attendance of men in the school of education will not mean that men are to take the place of women. There is still room for both, according to Dean W. W. Charters of the school of education. They will be elected to higher positions in high schools, normals and junior colleges. The normal schools and junior colleges make an especial demand for well-trained teachers.

DISCUSSION AND CORRESPONDENCE

MILITARY TRAINING IN THE AMERICAN HIGH SCHOOL

At a special meeting of the Chicago Board of Education held December 29, 1915, a practical step was taken looking toward the establishment of military training in the high schools and manual training schools of the city. The resolution, referred without debate to the committee on school management for preliminary report, is as follows:

Whereas, There is a widespread demand throughout our beloved country that the United States be placed in a position in which we could defend our land against any possible assault which might be made upon us, and with such end in view it is desirable that the young men of the nation be given an elementary training in military and naval affairs; and

Whereas, As a people we deplore and condemn militarism as a government factor in national life, yet realize that thorough preparation for self-defense is necessary to preserve our government against possible assault;

Therefore, *Be it resolved* by the Board of Education, in regular session, that its committee on school management be and it is hereby instructed to report within sixty days plans to bring about a simplified form of military training of the young men in our high and manual training schools.

The above news item is reported by the *Chicago Tribune*, which for six years has carried on its propaganda for universal military training and universal physical, technical, intellectual and temperamental preparedness for

the necessary brutality it assumes to be the inevitable rôle of our succeeding generations of Americans to accept as graciously as they can.

This influential newspaper follows what some interpret as its stampeding "efficiency method" of forcibly manufacturing a supporting public (or parent) opinion regarding universal military training in our public high schools by giving liberal news column space to the so-called Wyoming state high-school "system" for military training of the various cities of the state (apparently mostly of Cheyenne so far as the actual description goes), to a glowing account of the action of the Louisville, Kentucky, school board in sanctioning voluntary military drills for squads of high-school boys from the different high schools of the city, and to a few other still more locally significant (or insignificant) movements, as "Waukegan, Ill., High School Cadet Corps," and to the ideals of the Army League and to the Illinois Cadet League with its proposed telegram assault (*à la Ford*) upon congressmen at Washington. In one of its early editorials of the new year it concludes a meant-to-be cumulatively impressive summary of this nation-wide (!) movement, directed by "the cool, but deep, judgment of the American people" thus:

> It is significant that the truth of this is coming home to many communities at this time. In Washington, D. C.; in Portland, Me.; in Omaha, Nebr., military drill is established in the schools. Our neighbor Waukegan has just adopted the system. In Wyoming the state has adopted it with splendid results. Day by day there is fresh report of the formation of volunteer corps in grammar and high schools and colleges in all parts of the land.
>
> This is not hysteria, though excited pacifists try to discredit it with that charge. It is the result of the cool, but deep, judgment of the American people, not theoretical and vociferous minorities, but the mass of level headed Americans, whose collective verdict is seldom wrong. That judgment is formed on an aroused sense of the need for a better braced American character and for the establishment of habits which will correct the slack self-indulgence and unregulated impulse of which we see so much in this land and generation.

It is the belief of the writer that educational opinion, the half-articulate, modern, high-school "*teacher-mind*" of the 45,000 secondary teachers in the United States is gradually being awakened into a vision of a distinctly American type of high school, independent of European models, that the high-school teaching forces are thinking somewhat, and that the marked division in the ranks as a consequence is the most hopeful sign of the times educationally. I firmly believe that it will no longer be easy to stampede this seriously questioning group with any such blatant and blustery stump-speech, impromptu arguments as the typical militaristic newspaper thunders forth so noisily and so obviously after the manner and the motive of a pleader for a prejudice rather than that of a constructive contributor of a fundamental conception to our most typical institution—the evolving American High School.

I believe the two educational camps, or parties (the choice of genuinely descriptive names is, I hope, fair) are essentially characterizable by any of the important planks in their opposing platforms. "Military Training in Public High Schools" happens to be one of the most recent "issues" in the campaign now on.

THE PLANK IN THE TWO PARTY PLATFORMS OF EDUCATION

Absolutists

Military training is entirely consistent with our conception of secondary education. Drill classes in military tactics and in mass exercises will "discipline" the high-school boys. It doesn't particularly matter that the *sort* of military education we can introduce (considering our source of teachers and our school facilities) will not be either a preparation for the real work of the modern soldier or a modern employee in industry. Neither is our Latin nor our history (as at present organized and taught) a preparation for real life in the sense that in the daily mental exercises these subjects "smack" of reality to the boys who are subjected to them. In all types of "drill"

exercises—military drilling, conjugating verbs, or dating political and military events—pupils are "unconsciously affected" so that later they will fit into any national régime which our "national leaders" may carry through. Like our systematic and carefully prearranged "scientific" laboratory experiments in high school these military exercises will help greatly to "routinize" both the school and the individual. It doesn't matter if "setting-up drill," practise in manual of arms, drilling in marching on level surfaces and practising battalion movements on a smooth ground and for parade purposes are dull and boring and unreal for high-school boys. It doesn't matter precisely as it doesn't matter in the usual Latin and traditional mathematics courses, if the development (bodily or mental as the case may be) resulting is uneven, not symmetrical, and actually harmful physically. It is discipline; it is obedience, prompt and unquestioning; it is mass formation; it is uniformity; it is authoritative; and finally it is anti-individualistic, thoroughly in keeping with all else in our strictly non-differentiated high-school curriculum.

Furthermore, according to the *Chicago Tribune*, December 29, 1915, 87.8 per cent. of 2,669 Chicago parents of high-school boys vote for it. The people are demanding it (at the *Tribune's* post-card inquiry suggestion and according to this paper's interpretation of its own results from these Chicago patrons of high schools). Anyhow some sort of required and well-supported military training will be much better than our present system of athletics and poorly organized departments of physical education.

Experimentalists

The real work of a modern soldier or of a modern professional, commercial or industrial man requires and depends upon coordinated manual skill, agility, strength, endurance and "form" (all of which reflect and express a mental and moral attitude). For the soldier, for example, rapid and skillful use of modern machine guns, the "throwing" arm (for the hand grenades), short distance running with a 50 pound burden, effective use of shovel and pick and other tools for excavating—all such results of concentrated *technical training* can be acquired best and most easily and in a short time *after maturity*, as the Swiss, for example, have abundantly demonstrated. In our American high schools and colleges we have overtrained the few and neglected the many; we have, possibly, given the favored few the genuine and wholesome "fighting spirit" while failing utterly to provide means for any such expression for the great majority.

Health and vigor for the individual at the critical high-school period, not only as to his bodily dimensions and special skills in popular games, but as to the best development of his heart, lungs and other vital organs, together with an educated conscientiousness regarding his physical efficiency and an understanding of the laws of hygiene in their concrete personal applications, constitute the goal and the safeguard of a nation's citizenry in the arts of peace and war alike. High-school boys who are acquiring physical and mental control through a conscious educative process of personality development in its broadest and best sense will automatically make a nation unconquerable. Vital unpreparedness is physical and mental and moral in a much more profound sense than it is technical. As Dr. Dudley Sargent, of Harvard, says, we want educational preparedness rather than gladiatorial and spectacular preparedness. We shall have, if school boards hastily adopt measures looking toward incorporating military training into the high-school curriculum, an ill-conceived and inadequate pseudo-military science, formalized and non-educational in character.

Neither military science nor formal military exercises can successfully be superimposed or plastered upon our developing system of secondary education. The pedagogical disasters sure to follow can easily be surmised. Officers, specialists, in this art and science, a nation must have of course. But our existing higher and special military institutions must provide them. If necessary the nation can

easily afford to establish sectional institutions of the West Point type.

After all this has been said, however, it would be a calamity if our high schools fail to capitalize the present experiences as regards the emphases and lessons of the world war. Let us, however, not in haste and vague fear and excitement confuse universal militarism at the immature high-school age with that of nationally safeguarding democracy. No mere technical, literal and formal preparedness will suffice to secure such a fundamental thing as American democracy. Let us not do so soon again what the first extreme, enthusiastic, literal advocates of vocational education did; that is, expect, with the first shock and confused realization of the inadequacy of ourselves as a competing nation in this military, as in the former vocational sense, that we can, in the twinkling of an eye, as the *Tribune* naïvely and blusteringly supposes, reverse the aims, ideals, policies and even the somewhat naturalized mental processes of our democratic life. Militarism hasn't yet, let us remember, been made to spell national efficiency, much less a still higher national destiny.

Will then, we ask, simple military drill, as is specifically claimed, give the boys proper carriage, instil a wholesome love of country and provoke a feeling that they are doing something for their country? With broomsticks for their rifles, school basements and small gymnasium floors for their drill grounds, monotonous and mass marching for their athletic games, and under trainers wholly out of touch and sympathy with the historically rooted and controlling ideals of public high-school education we can picture readily the premature educational farce of it all.

This regimentation of our boys into squads, into machines, is just what Americans instinctively deplore and with good ground fear as an attempt to idealize and introduce into our schools the Prussian organization goal as an end in itself. President Eliot's reaction to this proposition to thus "morally discipline" our adolescent and impressionable youth seems to the writer to be a voicing of the most developed American democratic opinion when he objects that the "moral discipline" of the "Absolutists," guaranteed through military drill and other exercises advocated, is precisely the "implicit obedience" motif directly opposed to the "thinking-and-acting-for-themselves-as-men" ideal without which, in the members of a democracy, democracy itself becomes an empty dream.

Let us instead set to work to reform our athletics and reconstruct our system of physical education, and raise the standard and dignify the status and functions of our directors of physical education. Incidentally we can, and should, incorporate all legitimate features of military exercises just as the Boy Scout organizations have possibly fairly well done. This emphatically does not mean that our American high schools and high-school men are to capitulate to an educational ideal totally foreign to the vital and essentially American conceptions upon which the ultimate success of American secondary education depends.

The *New Republic*, in its January 29 issue (1916), thinks that the newer nationalism back of Roosevelt's recent utterances contains a salutary idea of a system of national moral education. The compulsion of his universal military education is advocated less for military than for social and educational reasons. This, the *New Republic* claims, is just as American as is compulsory education itself. This newest educational feature is to "stimulate a sense of public responsibility and to bestow on the American citizen some kind of moral cohesion." This is the great lesson of the war. This journal goes on to express, however, a fine American sentiment.

> The ordinary non-commissioned officer or even commissioned officer can hardly be seriously considered as an ideal guide for the moral training of future American citizens. A genuine democratic system of moral training must promote not only a sense of public responsibility and a disposition to make personal sacrifices, but vocational competence, livelier human sympathies, intellectual alertness, adaptability and tenacity, and an imperturbable faith in the great democratic en-

terprise of indefinite individual and social improvement.

We may add that we do not find this profound educational principle sufficiently safeguarded in the hurriedly formulated propaganda for compulsory military training in our American high schools. Verily, as John Dewey says recently,[1] the war has brought with it even for Americans a "recrudescence of the spirit of Romanticism." This emotion is a reversion.

But when the emotion passes, there will be an equal reversion to the light of common day with its usual tasks and the illumination of these tasks by the thought that we are *all* engaged together in the greatest enterprise which has ever enlisted human thought and emotion: the attainment of a common control of the common interests of beings who live together.

Charles Hughes Johnston
University of Illinois

QUOTATIONS

SCHOOL AGE IN ENGLAND

Mr. H. Ward, in his recent brilliant Report upon Elementary Education in the northwestern division of England, revealed it. In that division the process of getting children ready for the market is carried out with an efficiency worthy of a nobler cause. Mr. Ward tells us that "in the textile towns and districts . . . there are hardly any children over thirteen years of age at school." But the upper standards of the schools of those districts are as efficient as in districts where the children leave a year later. How is this result, this really amazing result, achieved? It is secured by the use of a period of two or three years in the infants' school beginning at the age of three or four years. We are told that "for the average child a year lost to school before seven is a year lost at the top of the school." Now, the ultimate cost at which those results are achieved is enormous: the cost of physical powers, of mind-strain at an age when the actual brain is naturally expanding in physical structure at an extraordinary rate, the cost of nerve waste and loss of *moral* is almost measureless. No doubt to some extent purely mechanical work following on the early pressure of school life gives some brain rest, but the whole process is wrong. This is not the fashion in which to make the well-balanced men and women who are the chief necessity of a nation. Certainly there are signs in the textile areas that the lives of adolescents are dwarfed, in matters of labor as well as of recreation, and that the educational system is terribly at fault. School life that begins at three and ends at thirteen is to the child a positive evil. The better brains survive the iniquity, but there are thousands of lives that are destroyed by it, so far as human personality is concerned.

Yet the northwest division by no means holds education in scorn; its great universities, its sound conception of secondary education for those who are not drawn off by the claims of labor, the very efficiency of the schools that we have condemned all prove this. But the division in its own special way needs revolution at least as urgently as any other part of England. The workmen and their wives should stand out for universal secondary training with a vigor unknown elsewhere. It would give them not only incomes at least as large as they enjoy now, but a new fashion of enjoyment, a larger and a happier outlook on life. If compulsory attendance begins at seven with children who are physically and mentally fit, then the four years' training in the preparatory school will give to the secondary school, at the age of eleven, children who have suffered neither physical nor intellectual violence and who are fit at once to take up the secondary training described in our December issue.

It may be said that the manufacturers would not tolerate a system that would lengthen school life to the age of fourteen—the age which the state at present regards as the real minimum, but which is still evaded under the by-laws—and would in many cases lengthen that life to fifteen. It may also be said that the manufacturers would not encourage the giving of continuation education in daylight hours to the children who have passed into their service. We do not believe that these

[1] *Atlantic Monthly* for February, 1916, p. 262.

criticisms of the great English manufacturers are true, and especially we do not believe that they are true in the north, where every effort is being made with success to secure to the children who manage to reach the very valuable secondary schools high minimum terms of attendance—school life undertaking as it is called—in these schools. There is already a noticeable increase in the length of secondary-school life; and, though most of the boys leave before they are 16 and the girls at that age, yet this increase is most encouraging, since it shows that the children are passing to the secondary schools at an earlier age and are securing substantial advantage. The north of England certainly appreciates increasingly the advantages of secondary education, and we do not believe that the employers of labor would oppose the generalization of a secondary system. They have seen that the increase of the period of education has in the past been in all cases a gain to industry; they have realized that trained minds are better guardians of machines than minds as mechanical as the machines; they have an innate respect for the great system of higher education which has in the north been largely built up out of their money.—*London Times Educational Supplement.*

BOOKS AND LITERATURE

EDUCATIONAL JOURNALS

The Journal of Educational Psychology—January

A constructive ability test: Truman Lee Kelley.

Age norms of psycho-motor capacity: J. E. Wallace Wallin.

Efficiency in mental multiplication with extreme fatigue: W. S. Painter.

An experiment on the influence of training on memory: Edwina Abbott Cowan.

Communications and discussions—The reading interests of high school pupils: J. Carleton Bell and Itasca B. Sweet.

The English Journal—February

Do thought-courses produce thinking: Joseph M. Thomas.

Socializing influences in the classroom: Alice Louise Marsh.

From the green primer to the brown: Hazel B. Clark.

Modern literature in the small high school: Winifred Littell.

The teaching of versification in the high school: Eleanora F. Deem.

Manual Training and Vocational Education—February

The need of an industrial education in an industrial democracy: John Dewey.

Individual differences and how to provide for them in the manual arts: Ira S. Griffith.

The important department in a trade school: Arthur B. Babbitt.

Some suggestions for economy and efficiency in manual training machine-shop equipment: M. W. Murray and T. P. Dunbrack.

Cane weaving: L. Day Perry.

A four-pole electric motor: A. A. Weinstein.

The educational survey of Cleveland—I: W. E. Roberts.

The American Physical Education Review—January

Physical training department at the Manhattan trade school for girls, 1913–14: Janette Trowbridge and Elsie A. Williams.

A survey of track athletics for women: Harry E. Stewart, M.D.

Practical sex hygiene in high schools based on physiological development: Wilfred L. Foster, M.D.

A course of study in dancing for high-school girls: Carrie Van R. Ashcroft.

Calisthenic nomenclature: J. H. McCurdy, M.D.

EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH AND STATISTICS

THE INFLUENCE OF THE WAR ON GERMAN UNIVERSITIES

AN examination of recent editions of the official "Deutscher Universitätskalender" will help us to form some fair idea of German universities in war-time. One's first impression, on a superficial glance, is that the stout little blue books have not changed in the least since August, 1914. The current (88th) edition, for the W.-S. (winter semester) 1915–16 has 595 pages; the 86th, W.-S. 1914–15—the first war-edition—has 607 pages; and the last W.-S. before the war comprised 592 pages. There are apparently as many courses now, and as many teachers and students as there ever were.

But closer study will show that only the framework of the structure is intact. The single fact that a majority of the "Korporationen" (*i. e.*, fraternities) are described as being "in a state of adjournment" tells the story perhaps even more plainly than the statistics that will follow.

This paper will aim to show the more important effects of the war first, on the faculties; second, on the curriculum; third, on the matriculations; and fourth, on certain student organizations.

I. THE FACULTIES

The following data are taken from the Kalender for W.-S. 1915–16. Only teachers are included (*e. g.*, no librarians or assistants), and teachers of dancing, dueling, etc., are not taken account of.

The first group of statistics will deal with the number of teachers in the various faculties. The "totals" in each case are compiled from the table between pages 336 and 337. The numbers given as "in war" were found by counting the names listed throughout the Kalender and distinguished by the sign (k), indicating "Kriegsteilnehmer," participant in the war. The abbreviation Proff. ord. refers to full professors; Proff. ext., to associate professors; and Dozz. to instructors (many, however, being of professorial rank). With the faculty of philosophy are included the faculties of science and mathematics, which sometimes exist separately.

Faculties	Proff. ord.		Proff. ext.		Dozz.	
	Total	In War	Total	In War	Total	In War
Theology.....	201	8	51	7	62	10
Law.....	223	39	57	17	94	32
Medicine.....	322	104	295	151	546[1]	305
Philosophy	778	96	414	108	659	234
Grand totals..	1,524	247	817	283	1,361	581

Out of 3,702 teachers, then, 1,111 or 30 per cent. are on war duty. A smaller proportion of the theological faculties is at the front than of any other. World-famous theologians at present in their country's service are Professor Sellin, of Kiel, Professor Heitmüller, of Marburg, and Professor Caspar René Gregory, of Leipzig, an American who has spent his life as a German university teacher. It is not specified whether these men are in the trenches or acting as chaplains.

[1] Correcting obvious misprint.

Among the younger men, Doz. Karl Bornhausen is of interest to Americans. A student of the psychology and philosophy of religion, he had been engaged before the war in an effort to bring about a better understanding between Germany and America, especially in the field of religion. He had secured royal support for an American seminar in Marburg, where he was doing fruitful work when the war broke out.

Professors Walter Schönborn (law), of Tübingen, C. F. Lehmann-Haupt, of Berlin, Er. Leick (botany), of Greifswald, Walter Penck (geology), of Leipzig, and Er. Obst (geography), of Marburg, have all been called to the University of Constantinople. Comment is unnecessary.

The drain on the faculties of medicine is illustrated by the fact that all of the associate professors of Königsberg have gone to the front, while from Marburg all but two of the full professors, both of the associate professors and all eighteen instructors are on war duty.

One of the tragedies of the war is revealed by the notation under the Freiburg philosophical faculty, "Pf. ext. Gg. Mehlis (k)." Professor Mehlis is the author of an article entitled "The Meaning of War" that appeared in the German philosophical review, *Logos*, Vol. V., No. 3, 1914–15 (early in 1915, but not exactly dated). The article is one of the most vigorous indictments of war ever written. Not only does it view war in general as hostile to all culture, but it explicitly insists that even when the cause is a righteous one nothing that a war could ever gain could compensate for the unutterable losses that it entails. War is always wrong, though we be forced to engage in it.—And now, Mehlis, Kriegsteilnehmer.

A study of editions 86, 87 and 88 of the Kalender shows that the following teachers have already met their death at the front.

Berlin: none.
Bonn: Doz. Frz. Jos. Sassen (law).
Doz. L. Cardauns (hist.).
Doz. Curt Alf. Haniel (geol.).
Breslau: Prof. ord. A. v. Wenckstern (pol. econ.).
Prof. ord. G. Preuss (hist.).
Doz. R. Stumpf (pathol. anat.).
Doz. Osk. Bondy (gynecology).
Erlangen: Prof. K. Reissinger (lat. lang.).
Frankfurt a. M.: Prof. ord. Hans Peters (law).
Prof. ord. Ed. Walt. Barthel (anc. hist.).
Freiburg: Doz. Hans Schultz (Germ. philol.).
Giessen: Kurt Vogel von Frankenstein (geol.).
Göttingen: Doz. H. Schultz (classical philol.).
Doz. E. Klauber (orient. philol.).
Doz. Hans Niese (hist.).
Greifswald: Prof. ord. M. Gebauer (pol. econ.).
Halle: Dr. Franz Marshall (director of exp. lab. at agric. inst.).
Prof. ord. Biermann (law).
Prof. ext. Kurt Jahn (German philol.).
Heidelberg: Doz. Erw. Rohde (pharmacol.).
Jena: Prof. ext. K. Baedeker (physics).
Kiel: Doz. O. Lempp (systemat. theol.).
Prof. ord. S. Sudhaus (classical philol.).
Prof. ord. M. Lebr. Strack.
Doz. Gerh. Kautzsch (zool.).
Prof. ord. Bernh. Fischer (hyg. and bact.).
Prof. ord. Hugo Lüttje (medicine).
Königsberg: Doz. F. Meyer-Betz (medicine).
Leipzig: Prof. ext. K. Kormann.
Marburg: Doz. P. Reich (dent.).
Doz. L. Kirchheim (medicine).
Munich: Doz. F. Bidlingmeyer (geog.).
Münster: Prof. ord. R. Wünsch (classical philol.).
Rostock: none.
Strassburg: Prof. ord. E. Heidrich (hist. of art).
Doz. E. Stadler (German philol.).
Tübingen: Doz. H. Süskind (systemat. theol.).
Prof. ord. H. Kriegsmann (law).
Doz. E. Jacob (pol. econ.).
Prof. ext. Clem. Harms (med.).
Würzburg: Doz. Rud. Sohm (law).

Süskind of Tübingen was especially lamented by his colleagues. Troeltsch, called by Riehl the most significant philosopher of religion of the present time, had looked to Süskind as his probable successor, and was deeply moved by the tragical frustration of his hopes.[2]

II. THE CURRICULUM

The war has had a two-fold effect on the curriculum. First, the courses offered by 30 per cent. of the teaching force (on war duty) have been suspended (although in some cases equivalents have been provided). Second, new courses have been introduced or old ones revised, with special reference to the problems of the war.

In theology, the following are specimens of what is announced. At Berlin, The origin and nature of modern Kultur (which suggests war-connotations to the American mind). At Breslau, Islam and the Christian Orient. At Leipzig, The world-war and missions to the heathen (also at Würzburg) and a course on The German nation and Christianity in our times.

The faculties of law, in addition to many courses on international law and military law, offer the following. At Breslau, The world economic war. At Göttingen, Problems of civil law in war times. At Halle, Industrial trades unions, with special reference to the experiences of the war. At Kiel, Present efforts of the great powers for political and economic expansion, and also one on War and economic life. At Marburg, Idea of international organization (by Professor Schücking, who has had the reputation of being an independent). Special courses on International law and the war are offered in Heidelberg, Kiel and Leipzig, and one called Law in the war at Königsberg.

Numerous special lectures are announced by the faculties of medicine, such as the following: Courses in war surgery at Breslau, Göttingen, Munich, Strassburg and Würzburg. One on War hygiene at Erlangen. The following in Berlin: Wounds received in battle and the nervous system (also at Leipzig); War as a biological factor in the development of humanity; The necessity of increased care for

[2] *Cf. Die Christl. Welt*, August 15, 1915.

children occasioned by the war, its methods and aims; War orthopedics.

In the philosophical faculties fewer special lectures on the war are noted. The great professors go on their way rejoicing with the same schedule as they followed five years ago. There are, however, numerous courses in which the war is evidently discussed, as in those on contemporary history; and there are several lectures on the history of war at various periods.

fail to show the desired relation between conditions before and during the war. The material is gathered from editions 85, 86, 87 and 88. It will be observed that there is surprisingly little change in the number of matriculations during the war-semesters. This is due to the fact that all students register for their work, whether at the front or at the university. A later table will shed further light on this matter.

The following table shows matriculations

STUDENTS IN GERMAN UNIVERSITIES BEFORE AND DURING THE WAR (1913–15)

Universities	German Students				Foreign Students				Women			
	W.-S. 13–14	S.-S. 14	W.-S. 14–15	S.-S. 15	W.-S. 13–14	S.-S. 14	W.-S. 14–15	S.-S. 15	W.-S. 13–14	S.-S. 14	W.-S. 14–15	S.-S. 15
Berlin	8,051	7,176	7,498	7,556	1,542	1,361	537	457	880	841	998	1,023
Bonn	4,137	4,404	4,085	4,371	133	120	46	46	348	398	420	492
Breslau	2,642	2,674	2,669	2,667	149	139	40	40	163	193	212	226
Erlangen	1,309	1,274	1,112	1,210	32	28	6	4	32	33	31	28
Freiburg	2,430	3,045	2,209	2,183	142	133	28	20	243	316	151	154
Giessen	1,296	1,381	?	?	44	51	?	?	30	32	26	32
Göttingen	2,629	2,675	2,232	2,337	186	159	31	35	227	220	178	242
Greifswald	1,221	1,417	1,100	1,060	29	34	9	5	72	79	64	78
Halle	2,597	2,563	2,190	1,966	313	292	122	114	87	101	106	122
Heidelberg	2,093	2,319	1,982	2,083	316	349	46	52	216	266	222	252
Jena	1,743	1,871	1,619	1,628	119	136	47	36	86	111	98	137
Kiel	1,805	2,559	1,926	1,946	42	83	15	12	52	100	74	98
Königsberg	1,329	1,336	1,246	1,293	239	207	14	12	125	129	124	150
Leipzig	4,853	4,732	4,293	4,188	679	627	222[3]	200	175	200	219	230
Marburg	2,104	2,427	2,033	2,032	64	95	16	26	158	217	176	277
Munich	6,147	6,012	5,375	5,585	655	614	164	163	441	470	317	388
Münster	2,117	2,160	2,353	2,319	6	9	8	7	191	226	240	283
Rostock	893	990	816	799	21	19	4	2	16	19	23	28
Strassburg	1,877	1,784	1,148	1,537	215	175	7	5	58	59	45	56
Tübingen	1,834	2,143	2,030	2,022	53	76	26	15	50	78	54	59
Würzburg	1,479	1,562	1,200	1,483	36	43	8	10	36	40	42	43
Totals	54,586	56,504	49,116[4]	50,265[4]	5,015	4,750	1,396[4]	1,261[4]	3,686	4,128	3,820	4,569

III. MATRICULATIONS

The statistics given above are self-explanatory. It is to be noted that the figures given in every case are the "temporary" not the "final"; the latter would be somewhat larger, but the relative results would be the same. The "temporary" figures are preferred as bringing us through the summer semester of 1915. Frankfurt is omitted from the first table, because, as a new university, it would

[3] Correcting obvious misprint.

[4] These totals are not printed in the Kalender, but are compiled by the writer. The figures for Giessen are not included. The total matriculations at Giessen for W.-S. 14/15 were 1,214; for S.-S. 15, 1,176.

from the allied nations, and from America (North and South). Portugal is included as an ally of England, although not actually in the war. Belgium is still listed as "Ausland." The figure for Russia in W.-S. 1914–15 involves the correction of an obvious misprint.

Countries	W.-S. 13–14	S.-S. 14	W.-S. 14–15	S.-S. 15
Great Britain	150	165	7	2
Belgium	14	8	1	1
France	40	25	1	—
Portugal	8	7	—	1
Italy	36	35	19	5
Montenegro	6	10	2	—
Servia	81	99	4	—
Russia	2,252	2,156	48	64
America	348	301	167	131

Next are shown the numbers of matriculates in the field as contrasted with those remaining in the respective universities. The latter figures and the grand totals are not printed in the Kalenders, but are compiled by the writer from the data.

Universities	W.-S. 14–15			S.-S. 15		
	Matric.	In War	At Univ.	Matric.	In War	At Univ.
Berlin	8,030	4,344	3,686	8,013	3,802	4,211
Bonn	4,334	1,862	2,472	4,417	2,816	1,601
Breslau	2,709	1,237	1,472	2,707	1,790	917
Erlangen	1,118	675	443	1,214	900	314
Frankfurt	618	81	537	854	139	715
Freiburg	2,237	1,526	711	2,203	1,736	467
Giessen	1,214	900	314	1,176	?	?
Göttingen	2,263	1,385	878	2,372	1,582	790
Greifsw'd	1,109	757	352	1,065	814	251
Halle	2,312	1,519	793	2,080	1,532	548
Heidelb'g	2,028	1,297	731	2,135	1,427	708
Jena	1,666	955	711	1,664	1,129	535
Kiel	1,941	1,407	534	1,958	1,561	397
Königsb'g	1,260	1,057	203	1,305	862	443
Leipzig	4,515	2,575	1,940	4,388	2,975	1,413
Marburg	2,049	1,448	601	2,058	1,447	611
Munich	5,539	2,722	2,817	5,748	4,005	1,743
Münster	2,361	1,145	1,216	2,326	1,478	848
Rostock	820	568	252	801	587	214
Strassburg	1,155	535	620	1,542	1,026	516
Tübingen	2,056	1,589	467	2,037	1,687	350
Würzburg	1,208	520	698	1,493	1,091	402
Totals	52,542	30,094	22,448	53,556	34,386[5]	17,994[5]

One would infer from the above statistics that almost all the physically fit men in several universities are at the front. In W.-S. 1914–15 the proportion is 57.2 per cent.; in S.-S. 1915 it is 64.2 per cent. There can not be many available men left in the universities. In this connection, attention may be called to a pamphlet distributed by the university authorities at Marburg (W.-S. 1911) in which the statement occurred that in some German universities a majority of the students were rejected for military service on account of disease superinduced by immorality.

IV. CERTAIN STUDENT ORGANIZATIONS

The fact has already been mentioned that a majority of the German "fraternities" are in a "state of adjournment." But we in this country have more interest in other kinds of clubs than such purely *urdeutsch* groups.

In the list of clubs, the *Studentischer Luftflottenverein*, the Student Air-fleet-club, suggests the atmosphere of war. It was founded July 8, 1913. Its aim is given as "propaganda for the idea of the necessity of a strong German air-fleet." There are clubs at eleven universities, one of which is suspended. This Verein, founded a year before the war, is perhaps significant of German preparedness, which we nationally oscillate between condemning as a crime and envying as an ideal.

The status of the *Freideutsche Vereinigungen* is also interesting. These are clubs that aim "at a preservation of the traditional values together with a development of their own powers with a sense of responsibility and inner truthfulness." This is a rather vague program. Actually the organizations belonging to this group are interested in the reform of student life and customs; they are opposed to dueling in all forms and "The Student Union of Abstainers" is affiliated with them. It is to be noted that most of these clubs have been suspended as a result of the war.

In 1910–11 an *Internationaler Studentenverein* was founded at Berlin, under the leadership of Dr. G. W. Nasmyth and Professor Hugo Münsterberg. The general nature of the I. S. V. is like that of the Cosmopolitan Clubs in this country. From Berlin, the movement spread, until ten clubs were established, and a union formed, that affiliated with the international student federation, *Corda Fratres*. The statement of the aim of the I. S. V. on p. 318 of the Kalender reads like an echo from a dim and forgotten past.

> Aim: furthering of friendly relations among students of all nations, strengthening of general interest in problems of international culture, and the mutual understanding of the different national cultures.

The last sentence of the announcement tells the story:

> The union has dissolved, because the clubs have collapsed.

Nevertheless, on p. 54, the club is still listed

[5] The figures for Giessen are omitted in these totals.

as though in existence at Bonn. It is to be hoped that the work of the clubs will be taken up with renewed vigor after the war.

EDGAR S. BRIGHTMAN
WESLEYAN UNIVERSITY

SOCIETIES AND MEETINGS

DETROIT MEETING OF THE DEPARTMENT OF SUPERINTENDENCE

THERE has already been printed in SCHOOL AND SOCIETY a notice of the meetings to be held in Detroit from February 21 to 25. The preliminary program of the general meetings of the Department of Superintendence is as follows:

Tuesday Evening, February 22, 8 o'clock

Addresses of Welcome: Charles E. Chadsey, superintendent of schools, Detroit, Mich.; Fred L. Keeler, state superintendent of public instruction, Lansing, Mich.

Response: Francis G. Blair, state superintendent of public instruction, Springfield, Ill.

"What Is Going on in the World," by Nicholas Murray Butler, president, Columbia University, New York, N. Y.

Wednesday Forenoon, February 23, 9:30 o'clock

"A National Campaign for the Improvement of Educational Conditions in Rural Communities," by Philander P. Claxton, United States commissioner of education, Washington, D. C.

"The Ford Idea in Education," by Dean Samuel S. Marquis, sociological department, Ford Motor Company, Detroit, Mich.

Debate

The Junior High School: Charles H. Judd, director, school of education, the University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill.; Carroll G. Pearse, president, State Normal School, Milwaukee, Wis.; Discussion from the floor—five-minute speeches.

Greetings: David B. Johnson, president, National Education Association, Rock Hill, N. C.

Wednesday Afternoon, February 23, 2 o'clock

"The Public School and the New American Spirit," by J. George Becht, executive secretary, state board of education, Harrisburg, Pa.

"Functions of Boards of School Control," by Ellwood P. Cubberley, professor of education, Leland Stanford Junior University, Stanford University, Calif.

Address: Thomas W. Churchill, president, board of education, New York, N. Y.

"Relation of a Member of a Board of Education to the School System," by O. M. Plummer, director, board of education, Portland, Ore.

"To Whom is the Board of Education Responsible?" by Albert E. Winship, editor, *Journal of Education*, Boston, Mass.

Wednesday Evening, February 23

This evening has been left open so far as the general program is concerned for dinners and recreation.

Thursday Forenoon, February 24, 9:30 o'clock

"Some Suggestions for Improving the Rural School Curricula," by G. C. Creelman, president, Ontario Agricultural College, Guelph, Ontario, Canada.

Joint Discussion

"The Minimum Essentials versus the Differentiated Course of Study in the Seventh and Eighth Grades," by L. D. Coffman, professor of education, University of Illinois, Urbana, Ill.; Frank E. Spaulding, superintendent of schools, Minneapolis, Minn.; William C. Bagley, director, school of education, University of Illinois, Urbana, Ill.; David Snedden, commissioner of education, Boston, Mass.

Business meeting.

Thursday Afternoon, February 24, 2 o'clock
Round Tables

Thursday Evening, February 24, 8 o'clock

Address—Woodbridge N. Ferris, Governor of Michigan.

Address—Frank B. Willis, Governor of Ohio.

Address—Martin G. Brumbaugh, Governor of Pennsylvania.

Friday Forenoon, February 25, 9:30 o'clock

"Booker T. Washington—An Appreciation," by O. T. Corson, editor, *Ohio Educational Monthly*, Columbus, Ohio.

"High Points in the Los Angeles Plan," by J. H. Francis, superintendent of schools, Los Angeles, Calif.

"The Cleveland Survey," by Leonard P. Ayres, director, Russell Sage Foundation, New York, N. Y.

"Report of Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education," by Clarence D. Kingsley, high-school inspector, Boston, Mass.